

The Nation.

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The Week.

McKINLEY has not yet spoken, and it is the opinion of all his managers that he need not speak. One of them, Mr. Kohlsaaf of Chicago, says: "Why should he speak? He has 600 delegates, and will be nominated before the end of the first ballot." What more do you want than that? When you ask if he is a silver-man or a gold-man, and are told that he is "sure to be nominated," is not that sufficient? The *Tribune* says the efforts to make him speak are "calumnies," that's what they are. When you quote a man's record to show that he has voted for free silver coinage, that he not only has allied himself regularly for years with the silver-men, but has stood on the floor of the House and denounced President Cleveland for using the whole power of his office to maintain the credit of the Government, and you use these quotations as evidence that such a man cannot safely be elected President unless he shall first say squarely whether he is for the gold standard or not, you are dealing in "calumnies." Why should he speak? says Kohlsaaf, and all the McKinley organs echo that question, but not one of them ventures to answer another and far more pertinent question, Why should he not speak?

The answer to this is furnished in some information which the *World* has collected from the silver section. McKinley's chief supporter in Nevada, when asked to say if the delegates from that State are supporting McKinley because they consider him a "friend of silver," replies that the delegates "are earnest advocates of McKinley unless some more pronounced friend of silver can be nominated," and says their partiality for McKinley "is wholly based on his record in Congress on the financial question; though not so pronounced a friend of silver as is desirable, he is held to be acceptable as a compromise; it is not generally believed that he would veto any silver bill." In Idaho, support of him is based on the belief that "if nominated and elected he would do the cause of silver less harm than any other candidate." Mr. Myron A. McCord, who is leading the McKinley forces in Arizona, says: "I regard McKinley as the man most favorable to silver of all the candidates thus far named. His record shows it." The editor of the McKinley organ in Arizona says: "McKinley I believe to be the most favorably disposed towards free silver and Western sentiment of all the candidates." These answers are far more to the point than Mr. Kohlsaaf's question, "Why should he speak?" for

they answer the other question, Why should he not speak? He would lose some of those 600 delegates if he were to declare that he is the friend of gold rather than of silver. That is why it is "calumny" to ask him to speak now.

As Speaker Reed's prospects for the Presidency grow dim his wit grows bright. "Advance Agent of Prosperity!" he said to a newspaper man the other day. "When I was a boy, the advance agent of the circus would go through the country and cover the sides of the barns and the fences with the most gorgeous posters of what the circus would be." Then he pictured the procession of knights in armor and ladies in silk attire, mounted on Arabian steeds, and followed by elephants, lions, tigers, and other wild beasts in a high state of natural fury. When the circus actually came, it usually consisted of a few persons riding horseback in the usual country style, one drowsy elephant, and a few weather-stained boxes mounted on wheels and supposed to contain wild animals. "It never came up to the show-bills," he added, "but there was always at least one first-class acrobat who could ride two horses at once." If Mr. Reed did not say this, it was nevertheless what he was justified in saying. The McKinley canvass has been a country-circus advertising dodge from the start. It has drawn the wondering admiration of all the undersized intellects in the country, and has been discussed by them in a practical way by the turning of handsprings and the riding of horses in all attitudes except the right one; and the movement is still going on. The "first-class acrobat riding two horses at once" has been the principal figure on the posters all the time. What a pity that Speaker Reed himself invested this acrobat with the tinsel that now makes him such a glittering attraction to all the small boys of the countryside.

Senator Teller's victory in Colorado is as sweeping as it is unique. He secured not only a tremendous endorsement in the platform for himself and his ideas, but a delegation, handed over to him ostentatiously as his personal property. The others are instructed to "act in harmony with the views of the Hon. Henry M. Teller." Why men instead of dummies should have been chosen for this purpose, it is hard to see. Even the "compliment" of an election as delegate must seem more than usually dubious under such circumstances. Such open action by a State convention is unparalleled. So also is the attitude in which Senator Teller will enter the convention. He is solemnly bound to refuse to abide by its decisions unless it decides in a way which

he and everybody knows in advance to be impossible. That is to say, he will go to St. Louis as an announced bolter, and yet demand a share in the deliberations of the convention. This will present a puzzling question to the convention casuists. There are some delegates whose "regularity" cannot be disputed. Yet they are regularly elected for the express purpose of thwarting and defying the convention and bolting it. This difficulty goes far deeper than a mere question of candidates—far deeper than the controversy which Conkling precipitated and which he and Garfield fought out in the convention of 1880.

A dealer in railroad bonds sends us the following extract from a letter written by his London correspondent:

"When the Venezuela dispute is settled, and gold-standard candidates of both your great parties are nominated, there will be unprecedented sales of American securities in the autumn; history has no record of such a plethora of money as in this city at present waiting for investment."

Probably every man who has business correspondence with London or with any part of Europe has received similar letters. Indeed, the writer of the foregoing extract has merely stated as a fact, without assigning reasons, what M. Leroy Beaulieu said at greater length in the *Forum* magazine not long since—that the Old World is gorged with capital seeking investment, and would gladly send it to the United States if assured that the gold standard would be maintained and that the Government would retire from the banking business. Some people think that we do not need foreign capital. Others say that if we had free coinage of silver, we should have enough money of our own, as though silver bullion grew on trees and it was only necessary to pluck it off and make it legal tender, in order to make everybody rich. This is one of the most widespread fallacies of the day. It keeps company with the notion that silver is deprived of an inalienable right when it is denied admission to the mint, and that the admission of gold to the mint while silver is excluded, is an act of partiality and favoritism contrary to the principles of free government and the Constitution of the United States.

It will probably be a long time before these misconceptions are wholly uprooted, but it ought not to require much time or effort to convince people that an influx of foreign capital would be for the benefit of everybody, and especially for that of the borrowing class and the wage-workers. Borrowers are interested in getting money at the lowest rates, and these are to be obtained by the abundance of capital in the loan market. To wage-workers

an abundance of capital means plentiful employment. That "Industry is limited by capital" is one of the maxims of political economy. It means that industry cannot exceed the limits fixed by the food, clothing, implements, and materials existing at any time for the support of labor during the period of production. If anybody thinks that industry can go beyond this limit, let him try and see how long he can work without eating and how much he can produce without other tools than his own hands. *A fortiori*, the more food, tools, and materials we have, up to the point of absolute saturation, the more employment there will be for labor. Consequently, anything which removes a barrier to the introduction of foreign capital is a boon to the working class and to the borrowing classes. One such barrier, and the principal one, is the doubt still surrounding the silver question.

A movement has been started by a number of shipbuilders on the Atlantic Coast to get the two leading parties to favor the policy of "discriminating duties." These people are not satisfied with the absolute prohibition of foreign-built ships from American ownership, but they want a higher rate of duty placed on goods imported in American ships than in foreign ones. Since successful shipping requires cargoes both ways—exports as well as imports—it follows that if foreign countries should adopt the discriminating policy, the American ships would make their outward voyages in ballast. As this would be the condition of the foreigners in respect of the inward voyages, there would be no gain, on the whole, to the American shipowner, but a loss to both consumers and producers. The petitioning shipbuilders say that all that they want is just enough discrimination "to create a *preference* for American ships, in order to give them the carriage of American commerce." What is American commerce? It is the sum total of our imports and exports. Of course, we can give bounties from the public treasury to the carriers of the outward-bound cargoes, but we cannot give any preference as to such cargoes by discriminating duties. Only the foreign governments can do that, and they would be very likely to retaliate. In any view of the case, discriminating duties are a fraud on the public, and they ought not to be tolerated or even considered by the national Democratic convention, which the shipbuilders are principally trying to influence, any more than a new tariff on wool.

The Bar Association of the State of Michigan adopted resolutions the other day in favor of a permanent court of arbitration for the settlement of disputes between nations of the English-speaking race, and decided also to organize a propaganda to push the movement until it

should be carried into effect. A committee was appointed by the arbitration conference at Washington to continue the work, and this committee, we understand, is now actively engaged in the duties assigned to it. Hardly anybody can be found who is opposed to the project; even those who think that it is impracticable say that they would favor it if a safe and sure way could be found to carry it into effect. The most gratifying response was given by President Cleveland to the committee which presented to him the action of the Washington conference. Everything seems so favorable to the movement that nothing can prevent its success except mere inertia and the common belief that it will now go of itself. Unfortunately, no good cause ever goes without pushing. The action of the Bar Association at Grand Rapids should be imitated in every State in the Union.

Congressman Fowler of New Jersey made a very pointed address the other day to the committee on banking and currency, of which he is a member. This committee consists of fifteen of the ablest men in the House, yet they cannot agree about any thorough-going measure of currency reform, although they have reported some small amendments of the national banking act. The reason why they are "all at sea" is that the country itself is in the same predicament. Mr. Fowler is a believer in what is called a credit currency as distinguished from a secured currency. Yet he hits the nail on the head when he says: "To suppose that the people of the United States will give up a secured currency in a day, a week, a year, or a decade even, for a credit currency is a most violent presumption, even if such a thing were sound in principle." With this conservatism is mingled a great deal of ignorance, for in no country, past or present, have the masses of the people ever been able to grasp the principles of finance or form any sound opinions thereon. Mr. Fowler proceeded to discuss the old Suffolk Bank system of New England and the present systems of Canada, Scotland, France, and other countries where an elastic credit currency prevails. The usual answer to arguments based upon the experience of other countries is that a credit currency may work well in other parts of the world, but would not do for us. This Mr. Fowler rightly considers an impeachment of our civilization and a declaration that we are unfit for self-government and self-control. "Would any man seriously contend," he asks, "that the president, cashier, or board of directors of a bank would be more foolish in loaning the notes of a bank than its deposits, when circumstances will bring them to its counter for redemption with the certainty and promptness of the checks drawn against deposits?" Mr. Fowler's whole argument betrays a mind well grounded in the principles of money and banking and fully competent to give them expression.

Gov. Morton has not yet signed the bills which the Legislature passed providing for the payment of the fifty-one men whom Superintendent Aldridge appointed in the Public Works Department in defiance of law, and he may well hesitate about giving them his approval. The amount of money involved is about \$30,000, and there is a practical certainty that in the end Aldridge will have to pay this out of his own pocket. He has no legal claim against the State, and there is no chance that the courts will hold that he has. He knew perfectly well what he was doing when he appointed these men. The new Constitution went into force on January 1, 1895, and on April 15 of that year the Governor and the Civil-Service Commission decided that, under its provisions, the employees in Aldridge's department must come within the civil-service regulations and be subjected, before appointment, to competitive examination. Aldridge refused to take this view, though advised by legal authority to do so, and appointed his fifty-one subordinates without examination and in defiance of the law. The Comptroller refused to pay these men, and Aldridge carried the matter into the courts. The Court of Appeals decided against him in its now famous opinion, in which it took the ground that the civil-service laws were so strongly entrenched in the Constitution that the Legislature could not reach them. Aldridge then had the Legislature pass a bill referring the question of payment to the Board of Claims. The Governor signed this, but it was discovered to be useless because contrary to the Constitution. Then Aldridge had fifty-one bills passed, providing for the payment of each employee separately, and these are now before the Governor. If he signs them, they will undoubtedly prove to be futile, for the Comptroller will refuse payment again, and the courts must sustain their former ruling.

The tributes paid by various city officials and the press to the late Deputy-Comptroller Storrs are no doubt just and deserved. He appears to have been a most valuable public servant, assiduous, trusty, and a complete master of all the matters falling within his province, and of many lying outside it. So indispensable had he made himself by his knowledge that his tenure of office was made secure by the sheer dread, on the part of his superior officers, of what might happen to the city's business without him. But we think that Comptroller Fitch and other zealous guardians of the American, as distinguished from the Chinese, system of appointment to office should not have failed to point to Mr. Storrs as a warning example of that terror of all true patriots—an "aristocracy of office-holders." A man steadily in office for forty years must surely have become arrogant, lazy, igno-

rant, and careless. We say he must have become so, because we all know that permanency of tenure inevitably results in those evils, and we are really incredulous to hear Mr. Fitch testifying that the late Mr. Storrs was extraordinarily industrious, and courteous and painstaking to a degree. This seems to us a dangerous admission. Simple-minded people will be led to ask why it would not be a good thing for all public officers to be kept in their positions, instead of being turned out just as they begin to understand their duties. We cannot too carefully guard against such insidious undermining of our institutions.

The governmental difficulties into which the Cuban war is plunging Spain are imperfectly appreciated in this country. In Prime Minister Cánovas's cushion the financial thorn is undoubtedly the sharpest. The war is costing \$6,000,000 a month; upwards of \$80,000,000 will have been spent by August. Gen. Weyler holds out no hope of subduing the rebellion short of two years' time. Where is the money to be found? With Cuba all the while steadily approaching ruin, Spain's security for borrowing is impaired. So is her commerce with the island, the prosperity of her merchants and artisans depending upon it, and therefore their ability to bear increased taxation. Spain has confessed bankruptcy once within the past generation, and the Cuban war, if much prolonged, seems bound to drive her again to similar straits. Why, then, does not the Government grant Cuba home rule, or go back to the policy of Prim and renounce the island outright as a possession which, Spaniards privately admit, is now little but a source of trouble and loss to them? We suppose no party or form of government in Spain could do that and live. The sentiment of national dignity and honor seems now to attach itself chiefly to the retention of Cuba. Spain may be impoverished, but she will maintain her lofty tone to the end, like the decayed nobleman in Valdés's novel, who had but one shirt to his back, but who did not for that cease to bear himself with fierce pride. Spain, in fact, appears to be able neither to subdue Cuba nor to govern it; neither to keep the island nor to let it go.

Sir William Harcourt's attack on Cecil Rhodes in the House of Commons, followed up later in an address to his constituents, serves to show the division of sentiment in England over the complicity of the Chartered Company in the Transvaal conspiracy. On the one hand there is a widespread and keen sense of humiliation that the country should have been compromised, in the eyes of the world, by officials who acted like sordid stock-jobbers, and whose plots came so conspicuously to grief. But, on the other, there is alarm at the vast property and political

interests involved in any action that might be taken to punish Rhodes and cripple the company. It is the latter feeling which ties Chamberlain's hands, and apparently commits the Government to a waiting policy. "Something must be done," cry Harcourt and Labouchere, but that only means, say the other side, that, as Lord Palmerston said was always the case when that cry is raised, you want us to do something foolish. Cecil Rhodes is unquestionably the ablest Englishman in South Africa. The development and consolidation of English rule in that region, and the building up of the great property of the Chartered Company, are due more to him than to any one else. What about the interests of the more than 14,000 shareholders in the company—more than 4,000 of them being foreigners? Have they not a right to be consulted before any action is determined upon which may ruin them? That is what is said, and it cannot be denied that there is force in it. But the indecision of the Government which way to turn is undoubtedly making political capital for the Liberals.

The Tory Parliamentary programme, as outlined by Mr. Balfour in the Commons, is shrewdly conceived. First the education bill is to be passed, and, as all the Irish members favor it, a smashing majority is expected. Then the agricultural-rating bill is to be taken up—a choice bit of confiscatory legislation, as Chamberlain described it thirteen years ago and, as the *Economist* terms it now. The Liberals and the Irish will fight this bill tooth and nail, but just behind it will lie the Irish land bill, which, with some trifling amendments, all parties approve. But they cannot have it, Mr. Balfour will keep telling them, unless they stop opposing and debating the agricultural bill. Let that slip through and there will be a good chance for relieving Irish tenants; otherwise, no one knows when anything can be done for them. These are clever tactics, but the main confidence of the Tories, after all, is their great Parliamentary majority. They are as majority-mad as our own Republicans. They think they can do anything they please. After all the damaging criticisms that may be made upon their measures, they have 150 majority, and what are the Liberals going to do about it? But veteran politicians are not disturbed by this sort of talk. Sir William Harcourt told the National Liberal Club the other evening that he had seen too many majorities of his own disappear, and too many majorities of his opponents melt away, to be either very much elated by being in the majority or depressed by finding himself in the minority. A majority, he said, was very much like a fall of snow, which might possibly come, but was absolutely certain to go. So he warned the complacent Tories not to put their trust in a majority

which, like so many others, was bound soon to "join the majority."

The rumor from London, fortified by the language of the Liberal organs, that the party is going formally to abandon Irish home rule because of the support given by the Irish in the House of Commons to the education bill of the Conservatives, has had a good deal more importance ascribed to it than it deserves. Since Mr. Gladstone's retirement and the defeat of his bill, home rule has been nothing but a pale ghost. The dissensions among the Irish would have finished it, even if Liberal interest in it had not been almost completely destroyed by the large majority received by the Tories after the Lords had thrown it out. A measure that is certain not to be passed in the lifetime of anybody now in politics, is not likely to remain long in sight even in a party programme. No matter what anybody says, everybody knows that home rule is dead. It needed both Gladstone and Parnell, a united Irish party, and a fiercely discontented population in Ireland, to give it any vitality. Gladstone and Parnell are both gone. In the absence of any stimulation from above, the popular demand for home rule has for the moment been appeased by the successful working of the new land laws. But its greatest enemy has been the divisions of the Irish representatives, who have been fighting like cats and dogs for two years, and giving as deplorable accounts of each other as two hostile Southern editors. This has already greatly disgusted the English public, and would have turned away the attention of all active Liberals from home rule, even if there were the remotest chance of passing such a measure within the next quarter of a century.

The retention of home rule on the Liberal programme has been for some time only nominal. It is there because it has been there, and for little other reason. As a matter of fact there is more real sympathy between the Tories and the Irish than between the Irish and the Nonconformists. The principle of authority, or leadership by somebody, finds much more favor both with the Irish and Tories than with the Liberals. Then, the Irish have never hesitated to make terms with the Conservatives when they could get anything out of them. The educational system provided by the new bill is far more important to the Irish Catholic clergy than anything, short of home rule, the Liberals are ever likely to offer. When one considers that the Tories are in power till 1902 for certain, and possibly as long again, and that they are completely independent of the Irish for their majority, the wonder is the Irish have not been even more eager than they have been to bargain with them, on the old plan of getting all they can out of the English, no matter of which party.

McKINLEY'S SILENCE.

THE question what currency the nation shall use hereafter is the most important question which has come before the American people since the war. It has only a business aspect. You may love and honor silver or gold as much as you please, you may weep in silence over "the dollar of the fathers," but when you leave your chamber and go out into the cold world with your dollar, you find that no one cares a cent about your feelings. All to whom you offer it ask you brutally, What is it worth in gold? And when you speak of gold, some cynical wretch is sure to say, What is exchange to-day? To venture in business, to start a house, to enter into a partnership or enter into any operation requiring time, it is essential you should know what the currency of your country is to be for at least five years to come. Next to this comes the question, What will Congress do about the currency as it exists to-day? If you cannot get an answer to this, the next in importance is, What will the next President do with regard to any legislation Congress may pass with a view to deteriorating the currency? If this next President should be McKinley, you have the answer to this one question already, so long as he does not change his mood. In 1890 he said, in substance, in debate, that he would not prevent Congress from deteriorating the currency if it chose, and he abused Cleveland for interposing his veto between such legislation and the country. Said this great man in debate:

"A single voice, a single man, elected to execute the laws, not to make them, commanded the majority on that side of the House to be silent, and they were silent. [Applause and laughter on the Republican side.]

"As I said a moment ago, we are after practical results. [Derisive laughter on the Democratic side of the House.] We propose to give to this country what gentlemen upon the other side of the House could not do; what you did not dare do for four years. We propose to give to the country a silver bill that will take all the silver, practically, of the United States and make it available for the uses of the people."

So we know what he would do on one question—if he does not change his mind; but whether he will change his mind nobody as yet knows, and he will not speak because if he did so he would offend so many people.

We learn from the *Tribune* that "the reticence of self-respect" is the proper and polite name for Major McKinley's refusal to answer any question touching his position on the money question. It is the more important to have a good name for this thing because of "the impression, now grown into a conviction," that McKinley "will be the Republican candidate" for the Presidency. What to call the refusal of such a person to state his opinions on the leading question of the day we never knew until now. It is to be called "reticence of self-respect." We thought that this was the name for the refusal of a private man to state his opinions. If we went into such a man's

office and asked him what he thought on the currency question, we have always supposed that he would be justified not only in refusing to answer us, but in expelling us from his premises, using no more force than was necessary for the purpose; and that, when putting us out, he might observe that self-respect made his reticence necessary. But it now appears that the term is also available for the use of candidates for high office, who do not wish to let people know what they think until they are nominated, while it is still not available for small private places. If, for instance, a clerk applied for a place, and pleaded "reticence of self-respect" in support of refusal to tell who was his last employer, and what he thought about theft and forgery, he would still be dismissed as a crank; but when a man asks to be made President of the United States, he may still say that his dignity will not allow him to mention his views about the matter which most nearly concerns the people of all classes and conditions, and will be in a sense his special care in case he should be elected.

But, alas! this plea is not open to Major McKinley of Ohio. The trouble with him is that he has not been "reticent." He is "short" of self-respect, as they say in the Stock Exchange. He has spoken, and spoken profusely, on this very matter on which the people now wish to hear him. He has already declared himself what is called "a silver-man" by every means within his reach. If he now keeps silent, it is with the view of making believe, by a species of fraud, that he is not a silver-man. He wants every silver-man in the country to suppose he is a silver-man, and every gold-man to suppose he is a gold-man. We know that he wishes us to suppose that he is a silver-man because he has spoken freely on that subject; and we know he wishes us to believe him a gold-man because he would otherwise produce once more his silver reflections. Consequently his reticence comes too late.

In 1890 he called on the House in strenuous terms to pass the silver-purchase act of that year. He wanted to purchase \$4,500,000 monthly to encourage silver. He consoled with Bland, "a free-silver man as we know him to be," yet powerless to pass a free-coinage bill, and compelled by the dictation of the President to sit silent. In 1891, in a speech at Toledo, O., February 12, he declared:

"During all of his [Cleveland's] years at the head of the Government he was dishonoring one of our precious metals, one of our own great products, discrediting silver and enhancing the price of gold. He endeavored even before his inauguration to office to stop the coinage of silver dollars, and afterwards, and to the end of his Administration, persistently used his power to that end. He was determined to contract the circulating medium and demonetize one of the coins of commerce, limit the volume of money among the people, make money scarce, and therefore dear. He would have increased the value of money and diminished the value of everything else—money the master, everything else the servant."

Or take this extract from a speech of

his made at Findlay, O., September 27, 1894:

"The Democratic party has been in control of every branch of the Government since the 4th day of March, 1893. Its legislative branch has been in session for more than twelve months, yet it has given us no silver legislation whatever, except to strike down the Sherman law at its special session called for that purpose, and in response to the urgent recommendation of a Democratic President. The party that struck silver down, and gave it the severest blow it ever had, cannot be relied upon to give that metal honorable treatment."

In fact, he began to work and vote for silver as far back as 1877. He has been doing it steadily down to this year. There is no more confirmed and steady silver-man in the country. We do not say that he was a silver-man through fraud or selfishness. He was probably a silver-man through sheer stupidity and ignorance. He has no more idea of the laws of currency than one of his negro delegates at St. Louis will have of the higher mathematics. We are far from railing at him for this. It is not every man who understands currency, and the quality of a man's brain is fixed by the Creator. But the attempt to give the country to understand at this date that he is really not a silver but a gold-man, or a heavenly-money man, and that he is keeping silent now through dignity, and not through fear of being found out, is shocking. It is revolting. Every man in the community who has children to bring up and a moral sense of his own, ought to rise against it and bring to naught this attempt at imposture.

He ought to rise against it for two reasons. One is, that to give the sanction of the popular vote to such an attempt to allow candidates for the great place which McKinley seeks, to "lie low," no matter what their antecedents may have been, until they found out how the convention was going, would really be putting the Presidency up at auction to be bidden for by the leading knaves of the community every four years. The other is, that the particular question in the arena to-day is far too important to allow of any delay or subterfuge about it. The convention will not meet till next month; the election will not be held till November. The politicians have at last got hold of the currency of the country, and are using it as a stake in their miserable game, and mean to do so for six months, and cover the whole land with fraud and humbug. Will the business men permit this? Are they to be satisfied with the assurances of Chris Magee and Gen. Alger, when the candidate himself, the only man who knows, dares not tell his countrymen what he thinks on the most momentous question which, except the war, has been submitted to the American people since the Revolution? Will they not speak out at this crisis for frankness, for loyalty, for truth, and for honesty, as well as for the gold standard—the honest measure?

PROSPECTS OF A BOLT.

THE news from Ohio and Illinois touching the course of Democratic politics does not improve the prospect of a sound-money platform at Chicago. In Illinois the organization of the party was taken away from Senator Palmer and his friends by the "snap convention" of last year. That was an unfair and irregular proceeding, but it served the purpose of its promoters. It put the Democratic party of the State into the hands of Gov. Altgeld, who has attached his fortunes to the silver wing of the party without any apparent reason except that he can annoy President Cleveland more in that way than in any other. As for Ohio, the Democracy of that State has been on the wrong side of every money question that has come up since the war. Last year Senator Brice kept it straight by a supreme effort, but the money question was not then of paramount importance as it is now. It is much to be feared that the party will now go as it went in the days of old Bill Allen—that is, for the poorest kind of money there is any chance of getting.

It behoves the gold-standard Democrats in all parts of the country to contemplate their position in case the party at Chicago votes for free coinage, by the United States alone, at the ratio of 16 to 1. That, as everybody knows, means the single silver standard. The pretence that it means bimetallism is not maintained by any honest person. Whether bimetallism could be maintained by an international agreement is a matter of dispute. Very few persons think that it could be preserved at the legal ratio of 16 when the market ratio is 30; but, however that may be, there is no prospect of an international agreement. Both the gold-standard people and the silver-standard people are tired of talking about international agreements, and, even if that were a hopeful solution of the difficulty, it could not be reached in time for this year's campaign. The day of straddles is past. There is nothing to do but to vote for one standard or the other. For office-seekers this is a dreadful predicament, but for business men and for the public in general nothing could be better than to have this question put before the country so that it shall be voted on fairly and squarely.

The silver standard will never be adopted by this country. No party can hold itself together which sets out to produce that result. No party which aims to reduce the dollar to fifty cents can avoid a prodigious bolt. There may be a bolt in any case, and bolting may extend to both parties, but it is certain that if either of them declares for free coinage at 16 to 1, there will be a dismemberment of the organization of that party, with the prospect that the fragments will never come together again. Moreover, the division will not be a sectional one. It will run through all the States east of the Rocky Mountains certainly, and through those of the Pacific Coast probably. There is

no chance of the Republican party making a declaration of that kind. There is every probability that it will pronounce for the gold standard outright in order to offset the bad impression made by McKinley's straddling. Any bolt which may follow at St. Louis can be easily reckoned with. It will be of small dimensions, of a purely sectional type, and will not put the party in real jeopardy as a bolt of the other kind would put the Democracy.

We should not apprehend any harm to the republic from a bolt in the Democratic party, not even if it were a thunderbolt. Both the old parties long since outlived the objects that called them into being. Whether they are longer useful for any purpose may well be doubted. If this question could have been submitted to a popular vote at any time the past winter, while business men opened their newspapers each day with fear and trembling lest they should find the country involved in some war without a cause, the verdict would have been overwhelming that both parties deserved perdition, and that anything which should dissolve and disperse them would be heaven's blessing to us all. For this reason we have not looked with alarm upon the formation and growth of the Populist party. By bringing the seeds of disintegration into the other parties it has promised to clear the ground for new political divisions based upon living issues, to disestablish the old machines, and to awaken the dormant patriotism and unused talent that find no place to work for the country under the tyrannical and corrupting boss system. The Populists have pretty well sapped the Democratic party in the South, and that is the reason why it is now going for silver and fifty-cent dollars. Why should not all the believers in that doctrine range themselves under one banner, and vote for one candidate? Then all who are opposed to them will range themselves on the other side. The advantage of such an alignment is that each man will then know what he is fighting for, and can work with some assurance that the blows he strikes will tend to produce the result he aims at.

It may be said that if a Democratic bolt takes place without any Republican bolt of corresponding size, the bolters will contribute to the election of McKinley and the enactment of a new McKinley tariff. The answer is that it will not be the bolt, but the bad Democratic platform, that will do the mischief. The election of the Republican nominee will be assured, and the only question for Democrats to decide will be whether this result shall be accompanied by an open revolt, or by abstention from the polls, or by quietly voting the Republican ticket. It would be much the better policy for the sound-money Democrats to walk out of the convention and make a public declaration of their reasons for doing so. One reason for taking this course is that the disintegration of the Democratic party will promote the breaking up of the Re-

publican party also. There are plenty of differences among Republicans as to silver, greenbacks, and the tariff, which will find room for expression whenever the Democratic pressure is withdrawn. The two parties have braced each other up for many years. When one of them actually falls, the other cannot remain standing very long. Moreover, Republican success at the polls does not necessarily mean another McKinley tariff. There are obstacles still in the way of such an enactment, especially a shortage of votes in the Senate. In any case a McKinley tariff is a curable evil, as we have already seen, while a fifty-cent dollar is not.

ONE ISSUE DISPOSED OF.

CONVENTIONS for the choice of delegates to the Republican national convention have now been held in all the forty-five States of the Union. The platforms adopted in these conventions, particularly those held in the important States of the North, have been examined with interest for the light that they might cast upon the drift of party sentiment regarding the live questions in our politics, and particularly the currency issue. One feature, however, common to them all, has escaped notice, although it is really most significant. We refer to the entire absence of any allusion to the issue which, in one phase or another, has been visible and prominent in Republican platforms in every Presidential year since the party appeared on the national stage. The sectional question, growing out of slavery, is not so much as mentioned anywhere.

The first Republican national convention, in 1856, assembled in response to "a call addressed to the people of the United States, without regard to past political differences or divisions, who are opposed to the repeal of the Missouri compromise, to the policy of the present [Democratic] Administration, to the extension of slavery into free territory." In every Presidential campaign during the forty years from that time to this, either slavery or questions growing out of slavery—as, the reconstruction of the Union, the conferring of suffrage upon the former slaves, and the attempts to protect them in the exercise of that right—have occupied a front place in Republican platforms. The contrast between four years ago and the present year is most striking in this respect. In 1892 Benjamin Harrison was President, and aspired to a reelection. The Republican convention in his own State of Indiana was therefore naturally held early, meeting at Indianapolis on the 10th of March. During his administration a desperate attempt had been made to strengthen the existing federal election laws by the passage of what came to be known as the Force bill. This issue was put first in the platform adopted at Indianapolis, which began as follows:

"The Republicans of Indiana, in State convention assembled, believing that a continua-

tion of the Republican party in power is essential to good government and the development of the material resources of the country, hereby reaffirm our devotion to the principles of the party as set forth in the platform adopted at the national convention in 1888, and we declare: That a pure ballot and a fair count are necessary to the maintenance of our republican institutions and the liberties of our people," etc.

Throughout the North, Republican conventions imitated the example thus set by their Indiana brethren in pushing the sectional issue to a front place. Pennsylvania and Ohio adopted the same plank on the subject, avowing "belief in a free ballot and a fair count," and affirming that, "unless intelligent and patriotic sentiment accord these rights to the humblest citizen in every section of the country, it becomes the duty of the federal Government to secure them by Congressional enactment, under the authority conferred by the Constitution." The Republicans of New York "denounced the treatment of the colored people in the South as barbarous, and continued (in defiance of the laws and the federal Constitution) for the sole purpose of perpetuating Democratic control of that section"; and they proceeded to "tender to the people thus oppressed our cordial sympathy and our earnest efforts for the amelioration of their condition." Every State platform framed in the North had a plank on this question, and when the delegates chosen by such conventions assembled at Minneapolis, they adopted a platform containing this general party deliverance:

"We demand that every citizen of the United States shall be allowed to cast one free and unrestricted ballot in all public elections, and that such ballot shall be counted and returned as cast; that such laws shall be enacted and enforced as will secure to every citizen, be he rich or poor, native or foreign-born, white or black, his sovereign rights guaranteed by the Constitution. The free and honest popular ballot, the just and equal representation of all the people, as well as their just and equal protection, under the laws, are the foundation of our republican institutions; and the party will never relax its efforts until the integrity of the ballot and the purity of elections shall be fully guaranteed and protected in every State."

A Democratic Administration has been in power for four years, supported during the first two years by a Democratic Congress. That Congress repealed the federal election laws, and thus put North and South, white and black, ex-master and ex-slave, on an equality. The experiment has been tried long enough fairly to test its workings. The result is that, beginning with the platform adopted in Ohio, the State which expects to furnish the candidate this year, every Republican State convention has omitted all reference to "a pure ballot and a fair count," the "oppressed colored people in the South," and the necessity of legislation to secure every citizen "his sovereign rights." Indeed, the one reference to the subject found anywhere in the country was the protest, against any attempt to reopen the question made by the Republican State convention in Texas, composed largely of

colored delegates, which adopted this pointed resolution:

"We view with satisfaction and pride the rapid growth of Republican sentiment in the South, and, relying on the force of a healthy public opinion demanding fair and honest elections, believe that further legislation on this subject by Congress is undesirable and unnecessary."

The return of the Democracy to complete control of the Government in 1893 has not brought all the benefits that were reasonably to have been expected. But the Cleveland Administration has rendered the nation one immense and enduring service by for ever eliminating the sectional issue from our politics.

THE NEW GALLERY.

LONDON, April, 1896.

THE day has gone by when the Grosvenor Gallery, or the New, which came to take its place, was the headquarters of any one special group of artists. Indeed, if a gallery were set aside for the purpose, the Independents, or Secessionists, to fill it with their work would be hard to find. The Pre-Raphaelite following has dwindled into insignificance. The Glasgow men are quite willing to scatter their forces, each sending his pictures to the exhibition most likely to accept them. Even the members of the New English Art Club have ceased to flaunt their rebellion in the face of the public, settling down to sober accomplishment. The result is, on the one hand, a fresh access of dulness in the never very gay London shows; on the other, a better chance that honestly good work will not be overshadowed by the eccentric, whether in subject or treatment.

This year's New Gallery, which has just opened its doors, is really but little more than an overflow from the Royal Academy. But there is one great difference: the best places on the line are not reserved, as at Burlington House, for the productions, however incompetent, of certain privileged men. Besides, the rooms are smaller and less crowded by a heterogeneous array of conflicting colors and designs. Much of the work that is most charming, and makes the charm most keenly felt, would simply not be seen at the Academy, where refinement of method counts for little. The work to which I refer more particularly is to be found among the landscapes. It is a curious thing that the influence of Constable and Bonington seems at last to be reaching England by the very roundabout way of France. The impression that Constable, slighted at home, made upon the Frenchmen of his time, has been pointed out again and again. He had substituted nature for the old classical convention, and, across the Channel, there were men but too ready to follow where he had led. Bonington was still more of a power. Delacroix paid eager tribute to his genius, which was as frankly acknowledged by others to whom his name was unknown. Gigoux tells how Gros, all unconsciously, called him "master" to his very face while Bonington was still a student in the great Frenchman's studio. But in England his work and Constable's made no such stir; for their own countrymen they were never masters. They and the Norwich School were promptly forgotten; and if Turner, thanks to Ruskin, was remembered, it was as a name, not an influence. Now and then artists like Mason and Fred. Walker, or North or Cecil Lawson, seemed to be endeavoring to

rescue landscape painting from the depths of ineptitude into which it was fast sinking, but in vain. And the worst of it was that the more inept the landscape, the more strenuously its painter insisted upon his adherence to the traditions of what he was pleased to call the English tradition. But many of the younger men have studied in Paris. In England the work of the Romanticists, who were the legitimate successors of Constable and Bonington, is becoming more familiarly known, and there is no question that, within the last few years, there is a marked change for the better. Indeed, I think the excellence of the landscapes the one noteworthy feature of the present collection at the New Gallery.

It is not so much that individual pictures are good, though several of them are, as that the general standard has been raised, that attention has been turned to more legitimate artistic problems. Where the object was once to crowd a canvas with as much detail as it could hold, or perhaps more, now there are a few English artists who concern themselves with the aspect of the scene they paint, with harmony of color, with rightness of values. They have learned to prize simplicity and breadth and freedom of handling above niggling and ill-considered smudging. They seek to compose a picture rather than to make a painted photograph, a literal transcript of nature.

It would be useless here to write out a list of names in order to establish the truth of my assertion. One will serve as well, and, after all, no exhibitor answers my purpose more forcibly than Mr. Edward Stott, a young man whose reputation has hardly yet spread from his fellow-artists to the general public. He has taken a simple domestic subject, quite in sympathy with English popular traditions. "The Old Gate," he calls it, and he shows three tired horses coming home after the day's work, a boy mounted upon the first, while, on the open gate, a small girl is perched, and another stands at its side. Beyond is the long, low, red-roofed barn, fowls gathering under the shadow of its wall. In the description it sounds as though this picture might be one of the characteristic water-colors of William Hunt. But Mr. Stott has not troubled to tell a silly story or to discover sham sentiment, as Hunt would have done. To him the subject has been nothing but an excuse to record a lovely effect of light. The low rays of the setting sun fall, with transfiguring glory, upon the face and jacket of the girl who stands, and, here and there, on the horse and the boy on its back; far away, to the left of the barn, stretches a tender, luminous sky. Figures and details are all enveloped in the magical atmosphere of the hour, and the artist has known how to concentrate attention upon this effect, and how to give to his impression the serenity, the feeling of completeness which is never missing from the true work of art. One will watch Mr. Stott's future career with interest. I wish there were space to speak at length of Mr. Arthur Lemon's "Campagna Romana," with the vast desolate plain sharply defined in the clear Italian atmosphere, and yet the idea of almost illimitable distance so well expressed; of Mr. Peppercorn's soft, silvery gray impressions of evening; of some half-dozen other landscapes which give genuine distinction to a not very notable show.

But the good work is not entirely confined to the landscapes. There is a fine portrait of Countess Clary Aldringen by Mr. Sargent. If it is not one of his pleasantest, the fault probably was his sitter's, not his. It is a full-length, and the tall, slight, self-conscious figure in

white evening gown has just risen from the sofa as if to give greeting to an arriving guest. The mouth is partly open in a set, acid society smile, the right arm is ready to be extended; the pose and expression are wonderfully natural and, one feels instinctively, characteristic. The white of the gown, painted with immense vigor and vivacity, tells deliciously against the pale rose of the sofa, behind which hangings fall in heavy folds. And the woman herself stands so well within the room, which is so unmistakably filled with real air, that most of the other portraits in the gallery seem no better than lay figures painted in the flat. It has not the beauty of Mr. Sargent's lovely "Lady Agnew," nor the dignity of his "Miss Rehan," nor, again, the spirit and go of his "Carmen-cita"; but it is a very distinguished performance, immeasurably more accomplished than the work that surrounds it.

It is a strange contrast to turn from Mr. Sargent to Sir Edward Burne Jones, whose canvases show but too plainly the infinite labor which they have cost him. To tell the truth, he is not at his best this year. In both his pictures he has been at much trouble to carry out an unpleasant color scheme, which does not help to reconcile one to the reappearance of the wan, mystic figures one knows but too well. In the first, "Aurora,"

"Day's harbinger
Comes dancing from the East."

She is merely his Psyche, his Venus, his Virgin under another name. She wears rose-gray draperies, hard and cold as the gray walls between which she winds her way; and she dances to so sad a measure, she clashes her cymbals with such wistful weariness, that one might well dread the coming of the day thus heralded. Never was there a more despairing Dawn, nor one less beautiful. "The Dream of Lancelot at the Chapel of the San Graal" also is without the loveliness of decorative design that might compensate for lack of harmony in the color.

Mr. Watts, who is always prominent at the New Gallery, has scarcely been more successful. His work, like Sir Edward Burne Jones's, always commands respect even when it borders upon failure. But allegory must sometimes prove a snare for the painter, and his figure of "Earth" is so coarse in form (which was no doubt intentional), the fruit and flowers she holds in her arms present so muddy an arrangement of reds and browns, that one cannot but wish he had thought less of his allegory, more of his picture. He has, besides, a "Time, Death, and Judgment," statuesque in its composition, but otherwise disappointing; and two little pictures of Adam and Eve, before and after the fall—a subject so hackneyed in art that a much more original conception and treatment than his would be needed to give it interest. For the rest, there is nothing to note, unless it be the fact that to M. Fernand Khnopff, as to Mr. Watts, mysticism or symbolism has proved a pitfall. His one picture, "Des Caresses," which represents a leopard-like sphinx and her lover, he has filled so chock-full of esoteric meaning that he has forgotten to find expression for it in the striking decorative arrangement which he once accustomed us to expect from him. Few are the artists strong enough to indulge in ideas.

N. N.

BARRAS'S MEMOIRS.—VI.

PARIS, May 7, 1896.

ONE of the men who owed their importance

to Barras was Réal, who played such an important part in the Empire. He was a lawyer, and did not miss one of Barras's soirées at the Luxembourg. He had made himself notorious in the case of Babeuf, the Socialist leader of the time. It is curious to notice the part which is always left to women in the Memoirs of Barras. "One day," he says, "I received a visit from a friend of mine who was also a friend of Réal's, Mademoiselle or Madame de Châtenay, for her quality of canoness gave her the right to be called Madame [the Memoirs of Madame de Châtenay have been recently published, and I shall soon have to give an account of them, as they possess real interest]. She was a person of much *esprit*, and even more erudition; a true Benedictine." She came to speak in favor of Réal, and recommended him for the office of Commissioner of the Directory in the Department of the Seine. "You, Barras, to whom France owes the finest things in the Revolution, who are the father of the most distinguished citizens and soldiers that honor our country—for did you not make Bonaparte, Hoche, Talleyrand, Fouché, etc.?—I do not answer for those whom I don't know particularly, but I do answer for Réal." There were good reasons why our canoness took so much interest in Réal, as her Memoirs will show. Barras was moved by Madame de Châtenay, and it must be remarked that he does not suggest that she employed with him the means which were employed by others, and on which he dwells with so much complacency and cynicism in his Memoirs. Réal was appointed, and "there you have one more actor," says Barras, "whom I introduced on the scene."

Barras observes, on this occasion, that the personages cited above "all put themselves forward by means of women's influence." Bonaparte was the first:

"We have seen his manoeuvres with Josephine and his marriage in order to have command of the army of Italy. Then Talleyrand; we have seen how he was helped and kept up by Madame de Staël. We now see Réal, in a secondary sphere, using the same means. . . . I will make here a sad reflection on their conduct. After having used women in the interest of their ambition, they were all ungrateful; they squeezed the lemon and threw away the peel."

Talleyrand was, says Barras, more than ungrateful, he became hostile:

"Judged by what she [Mme. de Staël] told me when I saw her again in 1814, she did not doubt that Talleyrand was the prime mover in the persecution she had to suffer. 'I had become insupportable to him,' said she laughingly, 'as Agrippina was to Nero. . . . I had given him bread literally, my dear Barras, before you made him minister on my recommendation; what had I not done for him? Remember my importunities. Well, if he could have treated me as Nero did Agrippina, he would have done so; he would do it still, and why? Because I gave him bread and made him minister.'"

One of the agents of Louis XVIII., of the Prince de Condé, of the English Government (this class of secret agents is not content with doing its work for a single person or party), was a man called Fauche-Borel, a bankrupt bookseller. He had received large sums for communicating directly or indirectly with the most important public men and bribing them in order to bring them over to the royalist cause. Fauche-Borel had persuaded the Pretender and the foreign cabinets that Barras, the General of the 9th Thermidor, of the 13th Vendémiaire, of the 18th Fructidor, was the most vulnerable. He wrote to him from Wesel, under the name of Frédéric Borelly, saying "that he had important revelations to make to

him which interested France and the Directory." He wished to have passports for Paris or to have sent to him, on the part of Barras, an agent who possessed his entire confidence. Barras showed this letter to the Directory the day he received it. The Directory judged "that it was important not to neglect this proposition, and to send an agent." Talleyrand, then Minister of Foreign Affairs, was consulted; he chose for agent of the Directory a person who saw Fauche-Borel at Wesel, but obtained no communication of any importance. The Directory decided that another should be sent with a letter from him: Barras sent a M. Guérin with the letter desired by Fauche-Borel. He said in this letter: "You can safely give the bearer all the information and all the documents which you announce to be of great interest for the Republic, the Government, and for myself in particular."

We find in the Memoirs a letter which Borelly wrote to Barras on the 17th Vendémiaire, year viii., with "letters-patent from the King appointing a commissioner for the proclamation of the monarchy." The Viscount de Barras was named High Commissioner; a month after Louis XVIII. should have taken the reins of government Barras was to receive as an indemnity "the sum of twelve millions of livres tournois—ten millions for himself and two millions which were to be divided by him between his coadjutors in the work of the restoration." Barras says that the correspondence and the letters-patent were communicated to the Directory. Fouché arrested a certain Monnier, whom Barras characterizes as the correspondent of Wesel. Barras's secretary Botot appeared before the Directory, his name having been used at Wesel; the secretary "disavowed everything." The secret register of the Directory would perhaps dispel the mystery of these negotiations. What seems clear, notwithstanding the protestations of the Memoirs, is, that Barras was open to an offer, and that he was thought to be so by his colleagues of the Directory. In his memoirs Gohier, one of the Directors, does not express any doubts on the subject. He says that there were in the Directory two traitors; that while Sieyès was working for a dictatorship—the dictatorship of Bonaparte and himself—Barras was conspiring for the monarchy. "The moment when this Director was to unfurl the royal standard was fixed, the day on which this conspiracy was to break out was marked; and if the movement failed, it was because Sieyès's movement prevented it." The allusion is to the famous 18th Brumaire, the day which witnessed the foundation of Bonaparte's power.

In volume iv. of Barras's Memoirs there are many interesting details concerning what may be called the preliminaries of the 18th Brumaire. Barras's ambiguous conduct during this period may be explained by the fact that he was carrying on a sort of double policy; he certainly knew the projects of Sieyès and Bonaparte, but he was conspiring probably also on his account. He was somewhat deceived on the subject of Bonaparte's prestige, and he seems to have been surprised when he found, after Bonaparte's return from Egypt, that, to use his own very energetic expressions, "la France se précipitait vers une existence nouvelle." The prestige of the "échappé d'Égypte" was growing every day, and Barras himself had become more and more unpopular and disregarded. When convinced that Bonaparte was the man of the day, he abandoned his own projects and cut the threads which he had thrown across the frontier in the direction of the Pretender. It was too late—Bonaparte had

seen through him; he did not like Barras any more than Barras liked him, and the reasons for this mutual dislike are obvious. Josephine was a sort of living reproach which stood between them.

On the 8th Brumaire, ten days before the *coup d'état*, Barras had at his table Moreau and Bonaparte; the conversation turned on the political situation. Barras recognized the necessity of a dictatorship; he confessed that he was himself "usé pour la circonstance," and pronounced the name of a general, Hédouville, by way of sounding Bonaparte. The effect was terrible. Bonaparte fixed an angry look on Barras and soon went away, determined to work with Sieyès only. He felt, however, some hesitation; he knew that Barras had much decision and courage, having seen him at Toulon on the 13th Vendémiaire. They saw each other any times. Talleyrand and Réal tried to induce greater harmony between them. In Barras's opinion the return of Bonaparte furnished the means of procuring an amelioration of the constitutional system; instead of a Directory of five members, it was necessary to have a single President who should have the power of dissolving the legislative chambers. Napoleon said to Barras, "It is either you or Sieyès," and seemed at times to leave him the choice. Barras did not choose; he invented difficulties, and finally it was agreed among Bonaparte's supporters that they would say to Barras's supporters, "He is with us, but wishes to show himself only after the business is done." It was also agreed that Sieyès should be amused and flattered to the end, and that Bonaparte should be made First Consul, with the addition of two other Consuls who would be merely his lieutenants.

On the 10th Brumaire the friends of Bonaparte met at the house of the President of the Ancients. It was agreed that the two Councils and the Directory should be transferred to Saint-Cloud, and that the proposition should be made by a committee of the Ancients. The details of the *coup d'état* are well known. The removal to Saint-Cloud was voted in the early morning, and General Bonaparte was charged with the necessary measures for the protection of the national representation. All the troops in Paris were placed for that object under his command. The decree of removal of the legislative chambers to Saint-Cloud was sent officially to Barras. Two of the Directors, Gohier and Moulins, went to the Luxembourg to join him; they were already abandoned, even by the troops which usually guarded the Luxembourg. Talleyrand arrived, after the departure of Gohier and Moulins; he acted the part of the Tempter: the republic was in danger, Bonaparte had no other thought but to save it. Sieyès, the two Directors who had just left Barras, understood matters; they had resigned and were going to join the Ancients at Saint-Cloud. "I open my window," says Barras; "I give a look on the Rue de Tournon and vicinity. I see soldiers going to the Tuileries, the people accompanying them with shrieks of support and encouragement. I can no longer conceal the truth from myself. I determine my course with the resolution I have often shown in difficult times." He writes and sends in his resignation as Director. And so the curtain falls upon him. He probably did not think that it would fall for ever, and that his political career had come to an end.

Barras, after having given in his resignation, left immediately for his country-house at Grosbois. It was there that he heard the details of the *coup d'état* of Brumaire, which gave to Bonaparte a real dictatorship. "The

conspirators of the two councils divided among themselves the power and the fortune of France under various names more or less serious; some called themselves senators, some others tribunes, or even legislators. It was their way of making people believe that there still remained a national representation in France." Two days after the *coup d'état*, Bonaparte sent Fouché to Grosbois to ask Barras what place he would like to have in the Government. Barras took him over his garden and said to him: "This is the only place I now wish to occupy." He wrote to Bonaparte a letter in which he said that his determination to leave public life was irrevocable. Had there been a secret compact between Napoleon and Barras? Did Barras, as his contemporaries believed, receive three millions as the price of his resignation as Director? Why did Barras accept no post, diplomatic or military? Did he simply receive money? Did the price of his resignation remain in the hands of Talleyrand, as Barras intimates in a note? "My resignation, of which I have told the story without any reservation, involved no money offer. . . . I declare that if any sum was paid by Bonaparte for this object, it remained wholly in the possession of Talleyrand." There remains a mystery hanging over all these points; what is certain is, that Barras disappears as a political actor on the 18th Brumaire; exit Barras.

We see him after this date going from place to place, from Grosbois to Brussels, from Brussels to Provence, from there to Rome, always under the eye of Fouché's police, filled with a bitter hatred of Napoleon. The close of volume iv. is a prolonged satire on the Emperor. Barras uses his remaining strength in obscure intrigues and conspiracies; he applauds the treason of Bernadotte, of Moreau; he triumphs with the Russians and the Allies during the campaign in Russia and in the invasion of France. He ended his life during the Restoration in 1827, ignored, forgotten, in great affluence, protected by the Government of the Bourbons, who never forgot that, before the 18th Brumaire, Barras had been ready to prepare their return to France.

Correspondence.

CHRISTINA ROSSETTI'S MEMORIAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A memorial to the late Christina Rossetti, the gifted poetess whose fame is world-wide, will be placed in Christ Church, Woburn Square, which she attended for nearly twenty years.

Sir Edward Burne-Jones, who was a life-long friend, has consented to prepare the designs for a series of paintings in the reredos, and to superintend the work in its progress, if a sum sufficient be raised.

A first list of subscribers has been printed which contains the names of W. M. Rossetti, Mackenzie Bell, Sir William Jenner, the Bishop of Durham, Ada Swanwick, and others.

It is believed that there are many in America who will with pleasure contribute to the memorial, and I beg to add that donations may be sent to the Christina Rossetti Memorial Account in the Bank of England, Threadneedle Street, London, or to Yours truly,

J. J. GLENDINING NASH,
Vicar of Christ Church, Woburn Square, and
Chaplain to the Marquess of Londonderry,
K.G.

92 TOWER STREET, LONDON, May 4, 1896.

Notes.

ZOLA'S 'Rome' is on the eve of being brought out in English by Macmillan & Co., who announce also 'A Collection of Problems and Examples in Physics,' by C. P. Matthews and J. S. Shearer of Cornell.

The New Amsterdam Book Co., 156 Fifth Avenue, have in press 'Political Parties in the United States, their History and Influence,' by J. Harris Patton, M.A.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will unite in one volume Mr. David A. Wells's *North American Review* article on "The Relations Between the United States and Great Britain," ex-Minister Phelps's Brooklyn address on "The True Monroe Doctrine," and Mr. Carl Schurz's Washington address on "Arbitration," under the general title, 'The United States and Great Britain.' The same firm have nearly ready 'Abraham Lincoln,' the *Herald's* thousand-dollar prize poem by the Rev. Lyman Whitney Allen; 'A Venetian June,' by Anna Fuller; and 'Will o' the Wasp; A Sea-Yarn of the War of 1812,' by Robert Cameron Rogers.

'Ice Work, Present and Past,' by Prof. T. G. Bonney, and 'Green Gates,' a New York novel, by Mrs. K. M. C. Meredith, are announced by the Appletons.

George Bell & Sons, London (New York: Macmillan), have issued, in the Bohn Library series, a cheaper edition of T. Keane's translation from the Russian of Alexander Pushkin's 'Prose Tales,' noticed in these columns a couple of years ago.

The translation into English from Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu's third and last volume of 'The Empire of the Tsars and the Russians' has appeared from the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons. This volume is devoted to the religion of Russia. It is impossible to speak with too high praise of the manner in which the author has treated this most delicate and difficult topic. A foreigner, a member of the Russian Church's great rival, he might easily have overstepped the limits of truth, delicacy, and good feeling. But, with a few trifling exceptions which might be taken by a person occupying another point of view, his statements may be accepted as fair and correct within mortal bounds of error. This volume should do much to remove divers deep-seated errors and widely spread convictions as to the Russian Church and the Government's attitude towards it and towards the dissident sects which have long existed, or are constantly springing up like the mushroom, faddish sects of our Western world. We should like to mention, in particular, as examples of the author's sympathetic comprehension and justice, his characterization, on p. 38, of the peasant and Christianity; on p. 106, of the Russian images; and on pp. 92, 109-110, of the Church music. The translator's remarkably fluent English is marred by the defects which we analyzed at length in our review of the first volume in the series, and which often render the chronology or sense chaotic.

Before the death of Prof. Herbert Tuttle of Cornell University, in the summer of 1894, it was known that prolonged ill-health had impeded the completion of his 'History of Prussia'; and the information that only a portion of the fourth volume had been written was received with sincere regret, but without surprise. This portion, however, amounted to a half of the projected volume; it was ready for the printer, and Mrs. Tuttle has done wisely in giving it to the public (Houghton, Mifflin &

Co.). The period covered—the opening campaigns of the Seven Years' War, from the seizure of Saxony to the victories of Rossbach and Leuthen—is of exceptional interest; and, in spite of the author's repugnance to any show of enthusiasm and his dread of anything approaching "fine writing," the story holds the reader. The volume is fully up to the level of its predecessors: it exhibits the historian's characteristic merits—care in attesting the facts, clearness of presentation, sanity of judgment, and sobriety of expression. Like the previous volumes, it is minutely indexed. Prof. Herbert B. Adams of Johns Hopkins University contributes, by way of preface, a sympathetic sketch of Prof. Tuttle's life and labors.

Mr. Percy Fitzgerald has been revising his 'Life of Sterne,' which is now published in two neat volumes by Downey & Co. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). The changes and additions are so great as to make the present edition a new book. Many documents relating to Sterne have come to light during the last twenty years, and with no advantage to his character. Indeed, the most important thing about this edition is the biographer's change of attitude towards his subject. The fresh letters and a careful study of Yorick's Journal (soon to be published) have brought Mr. Fitzgerald almost to Thackeray's estimate of Sterne. "Yorick's Journal . . . is fatally damaging; exhibiting a repulsive combination of Pharisaical utterances and lax principle. This would seem to show that Mr. Sterne was something more than the mere 'philanderer' he described himself to be. . . . It may be always fairly presumed that licentious writing is almost certain to be followed by life and practice as licentious." Mr. Fitzgerald is very well up in Sterne's love affairs, and does not consider that *Qui ne changera pas qu'en mourant*, at the end of a fond letter, means much. The people of York, who were scandalized at 'Tristram Shandy,' would have collapsed on reading the correspondence of their clergyman. Externally, the most interesting portions of Sterne's life were his visits to London and Paris. Mr. Fitzgerald's chapters on these episodes are admirable. Paris was decidedly more congenial to Sterne than Sutton. "Among the French in Paris he gave full reins to his natural spirits; and to them his peculiar temper seems to have been very acceptable. . . . 'I laugh till I also cry,' he wrote, 'and in the same tender moments cry till I laugh; I Shandy it more than ever.'" It must have been worth while to see Sterne in the full tide of hilarity. He is fortunate in finding a biographer who does him justice without wronging the public by a paradoxical defence of his behavior. Mr. Fitzgerald's book, in its supplemented and reconsidered form, will doubtless remain the standard life of witty and volatile Shandy.

The Chicago University unites with the Early English Text Society in publishing a new MS. of Lydgate's 'The Assembly of Gods.' The issue constitutes the first monograph in a series of English Studies to be published by the University, and is at the same time to be a regular issue of the English Society. The editor is Dr. O. L. Triggs, whose doctoral thesis the critical part of the work constitutes. Dr. Triggs's book on Browning and Whitman, a study in Democracy, was noticed in these columns three years ago. It is a far cry from Whitman to Lydgate, but we dare say an exhilarating one. At all events, while Dr. Triggs's earlier book, though often original, was marred by mistiness and nonsequacious-

ness, the author now employs a much severer method. The poem itself, which the editor assigns (*contra* Dr. Schick of Heidelberg) to Lydgate's second period, is a typical mediæval allegory of 2,000 lines, and in theology, mythology, and construction is neither more nor less conventional than most. The avowed aim of the poem, to find a common ground of accord between reason and sensuality, is realized: "in the fear of death all accord—Lydgate, Reason, and Sensuality." The editor adds six chapters of critical apparatus, throwing emphasis on the last chapter, which discusses allegory as a literary *genre*. Somewhat miscellaneous here is the collection of materials, but these are informed by a fine feeling on the editor's part for the vital bond between literature and life.

Dr. Bloomer's 'Life and Writings of Amelia Bloomer' (Boston: Arena Publishing Co.) is a husband's unaffected memorial tribute to his wife that must command respect. Mrs. Bloomer's life was almost uneventful. She was perhaps the second woman in this country—Mrs. Swishelm antedates her by one year—to found and conduct a paper of her own (the *Lily*), and she fought out in her husband's printing-office the principle of woman's right to set type. The promotion of temperance was her chief aim in life, and she was also fairly prominent among the woman-suffrage writers and speakers; but she will be remembered by the word she unwittingly added to the English vocabulary, though she did not invent the "Bloomer" costume, was not the first to wear it, and abandoned it with the same independence with which she adopted it. She celebrated her golden-wedding anniversary in "a black satin costume *en train*, with gray damascene front, crêpe lace in the neck, diamond ornaments." The "costume," while she wore it, brought upon her no personal odium or annoyance, and she lived to see a race of women bicyclers far outstripping, in their approach to the male costume, her modest innovation. Her activity on behalf of the soldiers in the war was like that in the other causes (including the church) which interested her. Mrs. Bloomer came of Rhode Island stock, was born in central New York in 1818, and died in Iowa, her final home, in 1894. Her life is typical of the New England spirit, in its permanent and its migratory aspect, and her labors belong to a class, not specially interesting in themselves, which are all the time honey-combing old prejudices and abuses, and preparing the way for great statutory, institutional, and social reforms.

In turning the search-light of modern science upon the problem of woman's mental capacity, as compared with that of man, M. Jacques Loubet, in his 'La Femme devant la Science Contemporaine' (Paris: Alcan), has not disposed of the question for all time to come, but he has given a clear account of its present status. The proof that the dogma of woman's irremediable intellectual inferiority receives no support from recent biological and psycho-physiological discoveries was worth establishing. The subject has been touched upon by nearly every writer on the woman question; historically it has been very fully treated by Mrs. Eliza Burt Gamble, in 'The Evolution of Woman'; but M. Loubet's treatise belongs rather with Havelock Ellis's 'Man and Woman,' as the most comprehensive from the purely scientific point of view.

Joseph Turquan's 'Les Soeurs de Napoléon' (Paris: Librairie Illustrée; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) is an attempt to define the influence which the three princesses, Eliza, Pauline,

and Caroline, had on the fate of the Napoleonic dynasty. That influence was, according to M. Turquan, evil and destructive, and he ascribes this effect to the immoral lives of the trio. Indeed, the story smacks strongly of the *chronique scandaleuse*, though the author takes pains to assure us that this is not his fault, but the inevitable consequence of his effort to paint true portraits of the Emperor's sisters.

The third and fourth volumes of 'Discours et Opinions de Jules Ferry' (Paris: Colin & Cie.), edited and annotated by Paul Robiquet, are devoted to the speeches made by Ferry on educational questions. On these he could claim to speak with authority, having thrice held the position of Minister of Public Instruction, and having striven steadily to place education within the reach of every French citizen. The fourth volume contains, in addition, two speeches on foreign affairs, but the real interest of the volumes lies in the educational debates, especially those on the education of girls, and on compulsory lay teaching in primary schools.

The Belgian writer, Ferdinand Loise, gives us, in his 'Histoire de la Poésie mise en rapport avec la civilisation en Italie' (Paris: Thorin & Fils) the third volume of his complete work on the history of poetry. This work is practically new, having been extensively rewritten and considerably enlarged. Among the additions are the introductory part, analytical summaries of the great Italian epics, and a review of nineteenth-century literature. The passages quoted are followed by translations usually very close to the spirit of the original.

Prince Alexandre Bibesco's 'La Question du Vers français et la Tentative des Poètes décadents' reappears in superb dress (Paris: Fischbacher). It is interesting to reread this plea in favor of French verse as used by all the great poets of France, albeit the attempt of the Decadent poets has ceased to attract much attention, if any. By far the larger part of the arguments put forward by Bibesco on the one hand, and by Psichari and Anatole France on the other, turn on the question of the so-called *mute e*, which is very far from mute in verse and often emphatic in song.

Félix Hémon, whose edition of Corneille is deservedly well thought of, has collected, in 'Études Littéraires et Morales,' first series (Paris: Delagrave), a number of articles which have already appeared in reviews, and his study of the early comedies of Corneille which is prefixed to the edition above referred to. The closing article, on Brunetière and Bossuet, possesses much interest.

M. Munier-Jolain, who delivered an excellent course at the Sorbonne on eloquence at the French bar, has published his lectures in book form under the title 'La Plaidoirie dans la Langue française' (Paris: Chevalier-Marescq & Cie.). It is a distinctly valuable addition to the knowledge of this form of eloquence. The period covered is from 1400 to 1700, and the evolution of eloquence at the bar—its merits and its defects—is fully examined and clearly stated.

The exact history of the word "socialisme" has not been very well known, and much time has been spent in the search for its first appearance in the French language. In a recent study on 'L'École Saint-Simonienne' M. Georges Weill points out what he thinks may be its origin. The *Globe*, an early organ of St. Simonism, makes use constantly, he says, of the word "social"; but the term "socialisme" is found in it only once, namely, in an article in the issue of February 13, 1832. The editor, M. Joncières, declares that the poetry

of Victor Hugo merits admiration in spite of its purely personal character, and then adds: "Nous ne voulons pas sacrifier la *personnalité* au socialisme, pas plus que ce dernier à la personnalité." The respective words are in italics in the text, which indicates, as M. Weill thinks, that they are unusual. It will be observed that the sense of the word "socialisme," in the passage quoted, differs somewhat from that in which it is now employed.

The sixteenth volume of the admirable series of *Indici e Cataloghi*, issued by the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction, is a Galilean Bibliography embracing 2,108 works of the philosopher or pertaining to him. It precedes a speedily forthcoming analytic index to the entire collection of Galilean MSS. possessed by the Central National Library.

A quarterly periodical, *Ex-Libris*, is projected for July by the Washington Ex-Libris Society. The magazine will, of course, be illustrated. The edition will not exceed 300 copies. Subscriptions at \$1.50 (for this country, \$1.75 abroad) may be sent to the society's treasurer, Mr. W. H. Shir-Cliff.

American tourists familiar with our Summer Schools may be tempted, by the announcement of the eighth Summer Assembly of the National Home-Reading Union at Chester, England, from June 27 to July 6, to combine sight-seeing with a comparative study of institutions. As in this country, various lectures (one on "Samuel Pepys and his Music," by the organist of Chester Cathedral, others on the geology and botany of the district, on Mediæval Monastic Arrangements and on Gothic Architecture, with a local squint) are attended with neighborhood excursions, to Hawarden Castle, Llangollen, etc. The Duke of Westminster will preside.

The first woman who has received the permission of the Minister of Public Instruction to attend lectures in the University of Munich, Bavaria, is Miss Ethel Gertrude Skeat, daughter of the well-known editor of Chaucer's works. After pursuing a four years' course of study at Cambridge, Miss Skeat passed her examination in natural science with distinction, and obtained a prize in the form of a travelling stipend; during the past nine months she has been engaged in geological and palæontological researches under the direction of Prof. Zittel in the Munich palæontological collections, which are especially rich in rare fossils. Probably no objection will be made to her candidacy for an academical degree.

—One of the most curious among the many quaint and out-of-the-way volumes included in the "Galatea Collection" of books about Woman, now being catalogued at the Boston Public Library, is a work consisting of two thick volumes, bound in vellum, devoted to the saintly women of the early Christian Ages who lived in solitude among woods and mountains. The title is 'Le Eroine della Solitudine Sacra, overo Vite d'alcune delle più illustri Romite Sacre, del P. Maestro Girolamo Ercolani.' It was printed in 1654 at Bologna, with four different commendations of approval, in Latin or Italian, on the part of the priesthood, as might well be the case, seeing that the author was prior of the convent of S. Agostino at Bologna. The thirty saints whose lives are recorded range in the date of their deaths from about the year 3, when the first, namely, Elizabeth, mother of John the Baptist, is reported as having died—although the worthy prior declines to name the exact day of her demise, but says that the *Martirologio Romano* places it on the 5th of November—to

the latest, "Genevieve Palatina," princess of Brabanza, who died April 2, A.D. 750. The biographies are in Italian, with many marginal comments in Latin and citations from the fathers; but the most curious characteristic is afforded by the pictures. Each of the thirty heroines of solitude is portrayed in her favorite retreat—either hut, tent, tree, or rock, according to the preference of each; some text from the Vulgate being usually inscribed. In some cases there are in the background houses or churches of the quaint Albert Dürer style of architecture, indicating that the sacred solitary, like Thoreau, stayed tolerably near home; but most of the scenes are laid in woods or deserts, and the heroines are often accompanied by angels and sometimes by saints.

—In the case of the mother of John the Baptist, she is sheltered beneath a rock, with her plump naked child beside her, while two winged and well-clad angels are present also, one of whom is feeding the cheery little boy out of a saucer with a large flat spoon. Mary Magdalen, with the usual voluptuous look and abundant tresses, kneels beneath a little shelter tent, the sheltering tree being inscribed with the rather doubtful motto *Satis nunquam amanti*. "Atanasia Antiochena" has a similar tent, with the more unequivocal device, *Casta placent superis*, and two angels tending her. A neat little hut shelters Thais of Alexandria, and a man of saintly aspect opens the door, greeting her with an air of surprise. Maria, the niece of the hermit Abraham, has a similar tent, near her aged uncle's; and while he prays, she is apparently reading from the Bible to a robust sinner of jovial look who leans against her door. Here the appropriate motto is *Qui stat videat ne cadeat*. The erring Maria of Egypt kneels before an aged hermit, in the forest. The virgin Ermelinda kneels alone in a comfortable little shanty, with door and window, like those our soldiers used to build for themselves during the civil war. Saint Genoveva appears with her deer. A rather apocryphal personage named Dimpna, daughter of the King of Ireland, in a thatched hut of unusual pattern, is being defended from an approach of soldiers by an apparent angel, the motto on her hut being *Potius mori quam fœdari*. "Giacchelina Romana" has a little roof half-way up a tree, just large enough to shelter her and her crucifix; there are steps leading to it, as with the little playhouses made for children in trees; close by, there is a river with vessels. Rose of Viterbo, a Franciscan, is preaching from a rock in the city square to a crowd of admiring men and women, with a zeal that Mrs. Howe might admire, and the motto says that she "speaks roses," *Vere rosas loquitur*. The Dominican Sibyl is praying at the door of her hut, while the Deity is looking down from a cloud. Lucia da Narni, a Dominican, appears disguised in boy's dress, but with locks of hair falling over her shoulders, with haloed saints around her, and the somewhat alarming motto: *Ex femina vir, nec vir tamen, nec femina, sed virago*. Most remarkable of all, perhaps, is Christina the Admirable, who sits poised on the top of a palm-tree resembling a giant cactus, whence she waves her hand to shepherds gazing from below; or perhaps Melania, a Roman lady, who has somehow procured for herself a little box like those which old-fashioned city watchmen had sixty years ago. It is just big enough for her to stand upright in, and her smiling face looks out from a peep-hole at the top, while admiring winged angels stand on each side of the box, and three little cherub heads,

winged but bodiless, float in the air above. A similar box has not, alas, given sufficient protection to "VViborada tedesca," a German saint, who is seen assaulted by four Hungarian soldiers, hacking at her head with large knives, having torn off the roof of her shelter. She appears resigned. It is due to most of these solitaires to say that they are usually in good physical condition, and are apt to look as defiantly and irresistibly cheerful as if they were "Salvation lassies."

—All students of Petrarch owe a debt of profound gratitude to Prof. Giovanni Mestica for the embodiment of his twenty years' labor on the text of the *Rime* in the handsome, yet modest and inexpensive, "edizione critica" just published in Florence by Barbèra. This scholarly achievement invited an exposition too full for the present work and which is to appear hereafter; but the preliminary observations are ample for an understanding of the method employed and drudgery undergone. The arrangement of the *Canzoniere* goes back to the earlier and sole authentic, in which the "sonetti e canzoni sopra vari argomenti" are intermingled with the love sonnets. The division into two parts is determined by the year of the poet's conversion (1343) and the composition of the canzone "I' vo pensando." Beginning, however, with the sonnet "Tornami a mente," the concluding thirty-one pieces of the *Canzoniere* are ordered for the first time in accordance with plain figures found in the margin of the original Codice Vaticano Latino, No. 3195, indicating the poet's latest preference for this series. To be discussed hereafter are the reasons for these changes in the distribution in the light of chronology and æsthetic considerations. The codex just mentioned is partly in Petrarch's handwriting, but he manifestly revised and corrected the copyist's part, and exhibits a pretty consistent orthography, which has determined Mestica's general observance or reasoned eclecticism; but in his footnotes he restores the form he varies from, so that the text of this codex is reproduced in its entirety. He is also to be thanked for the pains he has bestowed with a free hand on the punctuation. This, as may be imagined, is often equivalent to a commentary; witness the note on page 299 justifying the parentheses—"oh, che spero?"—in line eleven of the sonnet "Rapido fiume."

—The next precious document to be examined and used in connection with the foregoing is the Codice Vaticano Latino, No. 1396, containing the *Trionfi* in addition to the *Canzoniere*, and consisting of eighteen sheets, autographic rough drafts. This has already been reproduced in print and in facsimile, but has been gleaned anew by Mestica, and the variant readings are duly incorporated in the footnotes—an enormous boon to those who would verify the editor's statement that with Petrarch the art of writing was the art of afterthought (*arte dei pentimenti*). Moreover, he has gathered in an appendix the poems not included in the *Rime*, with some not Petrarch's but addressed to him, copied in his own hand. But we have no space to indicate the minuteness with which this codex has been made completely available, nor in like manner seven other codices, which, with sundry printed editions from 1501 to 1820, have been screened for the notes. Mestica calls Marsand's *Rime* of 1819-20 the modern Vulgate, and has brought it into the comparison as an aid to those who possess or have access to this widely diffused edition. He has borrowed, with or without

modifications, some of Marsand's "arguments" prefixed to the pieces of the *Canzoniere*, but has composed some for himself, and the whole of those for the *Trionfi*. Well may he exclaim at the end, "Ecco il vero Petrarca!" and adopt Petrarch's "Hoc placet" affixed to one of the very latest of his revisions. This admirable volume is illustrated with a frontispiece portrait of Petrarch from the codex in the Paris National Library.

TIFFANY'S PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

A History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States of America. By Charles C. Tiffany, D.D., Archdeacon of New York. New York: The Christian Literature Company. 1895.

DR. TIFFANY'S volume takes a high rank in the series of "American Church Histories," of which it is the last instalment up to date. It suffers most in comparison with Prof. Walker's Congregationalist volume, because there we have a development of thought, while here the considerations are almost exclusively those of ecclesiastical organization and development. It also provokes comparison with other recent histories of the Episcopal Church. It deprives Dr. Coleman's 'The Church in America' entirely of its reason for existence. It has no such relation to Dr. McConnell's 'History of the American Episcopal Church,' which, though much less careful and elaborate, has an individuality which will indefinitely prolong its life, and is, as Dr. Tiffany says in his preface, "as full of wisdom as of wit." Dr. Tiffany's has perhaps even more of wisdom, but it certainly has less of wit, either because he has less by nature, or because, more careful than Dr. McConnell of the dignities of churchmanship and of the sensibilities of churchmen, he has refrained from the publication of many things which put the church, from time to time, in an amusing or ridiculous light. At the same time, he has presented as fairly and frankly as Dr. McConnell those aspects of the church in the colonial period which were shameful in the extreme. Indeed, it may be questioned whether his more serious presentation of those aspects does not make a more painful impression than his predecessors' lighter vein, delighting more in their absurdity than grieving that such things could be.

No one can identify himself with a great institution without being sensitive to its traditions, and hence Dr. Tiffany's opening chapters on Virginia and Maryland are such that every loyal Episcopalian must read them with a heavy heart. "These colonies," he writes, "became a refuge and resort for the thriftless and profligate clergy of England, who were glad to escape from their debts and difficulties at home, and whose friends were so happy to get rid of them that they aided in securing for them assured positions and salaries on the distant continent." Many details are given in illustration of this damning generalization. Writing of the clergy in 1791, Gov. Berkeley says: "But of all other commodities, so of this, the worst are sent us." They were time-serving and indifferent; earnest and impassioned only in their zeal for their full tithes of tobacco. In Virginia the punishment of ecclesiastical offences by civil penalties was a source of much trouble and weakness. "The principle of religious toleration was wholly absent." Upon the threshold of the Revolutionary troubles Patrick Henry appeared before a legal tribunal on behalf of the vestries

and the people against the exactions of the clergy, and his eloquence, already brilliant, practically won his cause: the clergy got one penny damages. It so happened, therefore, that they entered on the Revolutionary period miserably handicapped, and we read without astonishment that of ninety-one clergymen only fifteen continued at their posts.

The early course of things in Maryland was even more unfortunate and scandalous than in Virginia, but it was relieved by the example of the commissary, Dr. Bray, "a man of noble and devoted character, who was drawn to the work by the denials and sacrifices which it involved." But even his heroic efforts could do little with such rotten or intractable material as he had at hand. It was a queer kind of quarantine when the question was not of cholera or of yellow fever, but "whether there was any minister on board, and if so what his demeanor had been upon the voyage." "No wonder," writes Dr. Hawks, a trusted historian of the church, "that such a bastard establishment as that of Maryland was odious to so many of the people; we think their dislike is evidence of their virtue"; and, but for the intervention of the Revolution, he contends that "the singular spectacle would have been presented of the extinction of a church established by law" without "a statute expressly depriving it of its character as an establishment"—this because of indirect legislation counteracting the greed of the clergy. The Episcopalian intolerance of Roman Catholics does not appear in any brighter colors than in Prof. O'Gorman's Roman Catholic history in this ecclesiastical series. "Maryland" (it is again Dr. Hawks who is quoted) "presented the picture of a province founded for the sake of freedom of religious opinion by the toil and treasure of Roman Catholics, in which, of all who called themselves Christians, none save Roman Catholics were denied toleration." Meantime, "The Roman Catholics and dissenters looked with contempt on an establishment so profligate in some of its members that even the laity sought to purify it, and yet so weak in its discipline that neither clergy nor laity could purge it of offenders."

From Maryland the narrative passes to New England. The situation there is given admirably in the words of Gardiner, the English historian: "The problem, as it presented itself to men of that generation, was not whether they were to tolerate others, but whether they were to give others an opportunity to be intolerant to themselves." In colonies actuated by this principle the Episcopalians stood little chance of life and growth. The sea change which the Puritan temper suffered in crossing the Atlantic as affecting "our dear mother, the Church of England," is left quite as inexplicable as it has always been. Apart from the smaller numbers, the scandals of the clergy were much less numerous than in the South. Dr. Tiffany does not, with Dr. McConnell, credit the difference to the example of the Puritan clergy, but that example probably had much to do with it. At their best, however, the Episcopalian colonies were a feeble folk; at the close of the Revolution there were but four Episcopal ministers in Massachusetts, and only six in all New England.

The Rhode Island section is one of the most interesting in the book, made so by the Bishop Berkeley episode and by the semi-civilization of Narragansett County, which had all the brilliant and superficial aspects of a Southern community—its slaves, its lavish hospitality, its festive cheer. At Providence, one of the baser sort came in, but he was "forced out of

the church in time of service by an extraordinary gust of wind," and afterward "halled out of the pulpit" by his people for breaking open the church door, and other irregularities. In New Hampshire and Maine the beginnings were extremely weak and slow. In Connecticut the dramatic incident was the simultaneous secession of the entire faculty of Yale College and one other Congregationalist minister from the Congregational to the Episcopal Church. It is true the faculty consisted in 1722 of the President and one tutor, but we have the authority of President Woolsey for believing that "greater alarm would scarcely be awakened now if the theological faculty of the college were to declare for the Church of Rome, avow their belief in transubstantiation, and pray to the Virgin Mary."

In the New York chapter (where the name of Jacob Leisler, the anti-Jacobin Revolutionist, is spelled "Leslie" every time), there are interesting details concerning the building of the first Trinity Church. Six pounds towards the steeple was contributed by Jews. Three hundred pounds which had been raised for the redemption of slaves in Algeria, and had not been spent because the slaves had escaped or died, was obtained from the town authorities, and the wardens were granted a commission for all "Weiffts, Wrecks, and Drift-Whales." In New York the general conditions were much more favorable to the Episcopalians than in New England, and they succeeded before long in laying deep the foundations of that supremacy in the city which they still enjoy, thanks in good part to the enormous appreciation of lands given to Trinity Church in 1705—"the Queen's farm, a tract of land extending all along the river from the present site of St. Paul's Chapel to Christopher Street." The interest of the New Jersey origins centres in the personality of Thomas Talbot, a zealous missionary whose labors were as unselfish as they were incessant. He was an ardent advocate of American local bishoprics, and there is a rumor that he procured consecration for himself as Bishop of New Jersey. Dr. Tiffany agrees with the best authorities in discrediting this rumor, which is engraved upon Talbot's mural monument in St. Mary's Church in Burlington. But it is impossible to follow the course of Dr. Tiffany's narrative through all the colonies. In Georgia we encounter John Wesley at a time when he was a High Churchman of the extremest altitude and endowed with a plentiful lack of common sense. Dr. Tiffany is very kind to his melancholy failure, and not a little blind to Whitefield's horrible complicity in the introduction of slavery into the colony and in the partial support by slave-labor of the Orphanage whose founding was, we are told, "by far the most interesting and valuable act of Whitefield in Georgia."

Having concluded his survey of the colonial period, Dr. Tiffany sums up the history and its lessons in an effective manner. The disabilities were immense: thriftless or too thrifty and profligate clergymen, the lack of native ministers made compulsory by the necessity of their going to England for ordination, the lack of episcopal oversight and discipline. The attempts to procure bishops are recited, and the reasons operative against them are stated fairly; nowhere more so than in the words of the original Adams: "There is no power less than Parliament which can create bishops in America. But if Parliament can erect dioceses and appoint bishops, they may introduce the whole hierarchy, establish tithes, establish religion, forbid dissenters, make schism heresy, impose penalties extending to life and limb as

well as to liberty and property." It was the alliance of Church and State that handicapped the colonial Church in this particular, and indeed at almost every point. Entirely free from State control, it would have had a much more honorable career, a much more conspicuous success.

Dr. Tiffany's book is divided into two nearly equal parts: the colonial part extends to p. 289, and the part covering the period 1785-1895 to p. 560. In the second part we have first an elaborate study of the endeavors to organize the church simultaneously with the organization of the national Government. In these endeavors Dr. White of Philadelphia was the most active and controlling spirit, and yet the final outcome was not a little different from his original anticipations. Evidently the church was much less sensitive to traditional authority then than it is now, so radical the changes that were suggested in the prayer-book and in the government of the church, some of which, and not the least important, were finally adopted. The story of the struggle for episcopal consecration is retold through all the weary length of its amusing, strange, and sometimes sordid complications. It was certainly a queer performance for Seabury, an ardent loyalist, on British half-pay till his death in 1796, to obtain consecration from the Scotch non-juring bishops when the English bishops would not accommodate him. Evidently this action of the non-jurors forced the hand of the Anglicans, and it is interesting to note how narrowly the American sect escaped the loss of any foreign consecration whatsoever. The party was considerable who thought it could be dispensed with altogether, and, if it had been from necessity, the damage would perhaps have been repaired without much difficulty. But oh the difference to those whose hearts are stayed on the unbroken line of apostolical succession!

'The organization of the church was not the signal for any sudden access of prosperity. The period from 1789 to 1811 is set down as "A Period of Suspended Animation." But the next twenty years were "A Period of Aroused Self-Consciousness and Aggression." Next came "A Period of Internal Conflict," the conflict incidental to the differences of High Church and Low and to the "Memorial" of Dr. Muhlenberg, looking to an extension of episcopal functions and a more elastic use of the church service. As between High Church and Low, Dr. Tiffany sails with an even keel. It would be difficult to say to which he more inclines. A more generous appreciation could not be had of either party from the most eager partisan. But when in the concluding part, 1865-1895, "A Period of Positive Advance," the Broad Church is described, the appreciation has a warmth of feeling which we cannot err in taking as an indication of the writer's individual position. The impression made by this description is confirmed by the beautiful and effective characterizations of Dr. Washburn and Phillips Brooks. These characterizations are two of many in the book that are extremely well conceived. Dr. Muhlenberg's "Memorial Movement" is called "a movement more significant than any other which has appeared in the Church's history," and the slow but sure appropriation by the church of the memorial ideas is heartily applauded.

In the treatment of the relations of the church to the nation during the war, Dr. Tiffany is more the ecclesiastical politician than he is anywhere else. "The Episcopal Church as an organization had from the beginning determined to keep aloof from party politics."

But the slavery question was not a question of party politics. It was a great moral question divisive of the political parties. As much as possible is made of the apologetic resolution passed by the General Convention of 1862, promising the prayers of the church to the Government in its deadly peril. Concerning slavery the church as such was always silent, while individual clergymen were not wanting in downright opposition. A pathetic circumstance was the calling of the roll of all the bishops in the general conventions during the war, none answering from the South.

In the later history there are many interesting details on which we cannot touch. What we miss is any indication of influence upon the church, for good or ill, of the wonderful expansion of natural and critical science which has synchronized with the expansion of the church since 1865. Dr. Tiffany reserves for his climax a hopeful prophecy of the good times coming under the aegis of the "Quadrilateral" of the Lambeth conference. Judging from the action of the last General Convention, it would appear that the disposition of the Episcopalians to give up something of doctrine and observance, in order to gather the other sheep into their own fold, abates as time goes on.

RECENT FICTION.

A Lady of Quality. By Frances Hodgson Burnett. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Strangers at Lisconnel. By Jane Barlow. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Earth's Enigmas. By C. G. D. Roberts. Lamson, Wolfe & Co.

The Gold Fish of Gran Chimú. By Charles F. Lummis. Lamson, Wolfe & Co.

MRS. BURNETT shows bold confidence in a widespread ignorance of Queen Anne literature by announcing that her 'Lady of Quality' is "a most curious history, as related by Mr. Isaac Bickerstaff, but not presented to the World of Fashion through the pages of the *Tatler*." The history is most curious, and there is no denying that several of its incidents may have come within Dick Steele's experience. Mrs. Burnett's assurance of her public's insensibility to literary motive, manner, and style lies in the word *as*. If Mr. Bickerstaff ever related this history, he showed commendable discretion in withholding it from a paper the general purpose of which was "to recommend truth, innocence, honor, and virtue as the chief ornaments of life." If he ever related it *as* Mrs. Burnett has written it down, it must have been on a night when, foreseeing that he should not go home at all, he sent word apologetically early in the evening, winding up,

"I am, dear Prue, a little in drink, but at all times Y^r Faithfull Husband,
RICH^d STEELE."

The evidence against the Bickerstaff myth is strong, and one may fairly assume that 'The Lady of Quality' is a contemporary creation by a novelist not finical about matter fit for publication, scornful of the probabilities of character and logic of events, and vainly imagining that the eighteenth-century *cachet* is given by calling women "sluts" and "wenches," men "rakes" and "wild dogs," and by peppering the pages with "odzooks," "forsooth," and somewhat archaic adjectives such as "beauteous" and "roystering."

The Lady Clorinda Wildairs is introduced at birth, bawling at her dead mother. She is the ninth, unwelcome daughter of a terrible Sir

Geoffry and his inconveniently prolific wife. Why ninth it is impossible to guess, since the number is not proverbially fateful, and since six of the sisters already in the churchyard lie, having therefore nothing to do with the tale. For six years Clorinda lived between the kitchen and stable, during which time she learned to ride, to kick, and to curse with great volubility and precision. She made her first meeting with her father memorable by falling on him with a hunting-crop and "language which would have done credit to Doll Lightfoot herself." Charmed by her spirit and phrases, Sir Geoffry took her education under his personal supervision, with the result that at fifteen modesty was unknown to her and decency a word without meaning. Mrs. Burnett says that at this age she "was as worldly and familiar with the devices of intrigue as she would be at forty," and, further, that she was "no more ignorant than if she had been in with some gay young springald of a lad." Eighteenth-century springalds must have been very knowing boys if to measure them by Clorinda is no slander. These points being borne in mind, we see no reason why Clorinda, being unchaste, should not, to suit her interests, assume the loftiest virtue, and, much assisted in the enterprise by the beauty to the mere indication of which pages of superlatives are devoted, should not marry in succession a perfectly noble and virtuous earl and an unspeakably magnificent duke. It would be just like her, too, and like nobody else, to murder an inconvenient lover with her favorite implement of battle, a hunting-crop, to tuck him tidily under a sofa, and, in a splendor of jewels and brocade, to sit on him, so to speak, while, with inimitable self-possession, she received the whole world of fashion, including that benevolent censor, Mr. Addison.

In all this there is no inconsistency, and, though it is a pity, it might be true. But what is not true, what is grossly false to fact and, as fiction, weak, sentimental, and ridiculous, is the subsequent development of Clorinda. This development is supposed to justify the preceding narration and to point the moral. Such use of a scandalous tale marks, even more significantly than do the artificial manner and extravagant style, the wide, wide difference between Mr. Bickerstaff and Mrs. Burnett; it points to the amazing conclusion that Mrs. Burnett is not conscious of having exposed vice, but believes that, from the beginning, she is seriously occupied in delineating the progress of a possibly faulty mortal towards the glory of a full-blown angel. Such moral obliquity is too sad a subject to dwell upon, and the only relief is in the thought that even the feeblest minded reader may be saved from infection by the human instinct to reject a miracle to which the narrator has failed to give an air of veracity or even plausibility. The most serious result of the publication of 'A Lady of Quality' that need be anticipated is a deluge of publications from lady novelists all solemnly declaring that, in order to live long and happily and to achieve an epitaph recording superlative nobility and purity, it is quite imperative for a woman to commit every sin mentioned in the decalogue.

Hunger is doubtless painful to Ryans, Finegans, and Raffertys who carouse on a spoonful of tea and exchange jokes over the last potato, but it doesn't appear so, and that is one of the reasons why people may read 'Strangers at Lisconnel' at night and face destiny with some degree of cheerfulness next morning. All writers of Irish fiction emphasize the cheerfulness and wit of the peasantry, but Jane Bar-

low has a preëminent talent for showing these qualities as God-given compensations for centuries of struggle with dire poverty. It would almost seem that it is more by their unconsciously heroic philosophy than by their irrepressible combativeness that Irish peasants have been saved from perishing of despair. Miss Barlow's work is as natural and free from effort for literary effect as fiction can be without falling flat and dull. The incidents that enliven the changeless routine of life at Lisconnel are the passing by or temporary sojourn of a thieving tinker, a visionary scholar, a soldier, an idiot or "quare one." These incidents are less valuable for themselves than as a means of bringing out character and encouraging conversation in Lisconnel. The most noticeable points of character are kindness, family affection, and loyalty, and an inextinguishable interest in the neighbors, while the conversation is full of wit and plentifully seasoned with wisdom. The Irish have always been fortunate in writers of song and story capable of expressing the heart of the people, and never more so than in the case of Jane Barlow, whose work is both a profound and sympathetic study of Irish human nature and a notable contribution to fiction, in the English language.

In the silent Canadian forests and sea-born Tantramar marshes one might hope, if anywhere, to be rid of 'Earth's Enigmas,' but it is just in these lonely, lovely places that Mr. Roberts has found riddles plentiful and profound: why unconsidered trifles are mile stones of destiny; why gratified ambition turns out Dead Sea fruit; why the happiness of young love is smitten in an instant by tragedy; why superstitions are often justified by facts, and why no man can always believe his own eyes or any evidence of his senses. Fortunately Mr. Roberts has not attempted to analyze the inscrutable or to explain the inexplicable. His tales are objective, tales of moral and physical courage, of accident from floods and high tides, of fights for life with wild beasts, and of terror, of supernatural omens and portents. His questions are matters of inference, and it is possible to read the tales without suspecting any far-reaching speculation. The incidents and scenes fit each other admirably, and the characterization is strong, clear, and interesting. Sometimes the beauties and wonders of nature are overwrought, but the defect is excused when we remember that a poet of nature is struggling with the limitations of a plain prose tale. Much more surprising than decorative excursions are the vivid presentation of rough and primitive people, and a vigorous directness at critical moments which we are accustomed to find only in very accomplished writers of prose fiction.

The incidents narrated in 'The Gold Fish of Gran Chimú' occupy a very short space of time, and are novel and touching. The moment chosen is that when independent seekers for buried treasure in the dust and mould of Chimú are expecting an order to desist, or else to go on at a price which shall benefit only the Peruvian Congress. "It's a fool's law, a thief's law—but if they pass it there it is. When I'm in a country I obey its laws, crazy though they be." So spoke the scientific American mummy-miner, and ordered his slaves to dig for all they were worth until it was known for certain that the obnoxious law had passed. "This law is meant to rob our few scholars of their collections; if one were to find even the *Pez Grande*, it would rob him even of that. There is no remedy;

either to find it before the law shall pass or not at all." So sighed Don Beltran, the only gentleman of Peru who deigned to work, and himself descended into the pit in pursuit of the fabulous treasure which would redeem his fallen fortunes and scatter his enemies. Such integrity deserves reward and gets it, but not until the law-respecting scientist has shown his skill in the manly art of self-defence, and Don Beltran sounded the depths of despair. An entertaining sequence of incidents is as much as should be expected in a tale of strange adventure; here we have that, and, besides, the unexpected—the display of a great many emotions and passions and intellectual qualities. The spirit throughout is alert and gay, and the sympathy with delicately strung natures charming; even the literal translation of a foreign idiom (a very dangerous experiment) adds to the grace and naturalness of Mr. Lummis's tale.

BRUCE'S ECONOMIC HISTORY OF VIRGINIA.—I.

Economic History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century: An Inquiry into the Material Condition of the People, based upon Original and Contemporaneous Records. By Philip Alexander Bruce. Macmillan & Co. 1896. Map. 8vo, pp. xix, 634, 647.

VIRGINIA has not been fortunate in her historians. Among the earlier writers, Stith and Girardin possess merit, and the latter enjoyed the assistance of Jefferson. Among the later, Brown's 'Genesis of the United States' takes a high rank because of its original documents. Apart from these examples, the faults of superficial investigation, partially concealed by rhetoric or rhapsody, have marked the so-called histories, making a dreary and unprofitable field for the student unable to revert to the original records. It was in a questioning mood that we took up the volumes of Mr. Bruce, for they deal with the earliest periods of Virginia history—the first settlements and ninety years subsequent; periods which have been rendered hazy by tradition and surrounded by a halo of romance. As we read on, it soon became evident that the writer possessed and had applied unusual capabilities for performing his task. He is a Virginian, of keen observation, and not terrified by the drudgery of original investigation. Manuscript as well as printed authorities have been carefully studied, and this labor has resulted in what must be regarded as the best record of the early economic development of a colony, the best history of the early agricultural growth of any State in the Union. As a mere history it would stand high; as a description of the economic system of Virginia it possesses even greater merits, explaining, as it does, by this method Virginia's peculiar place in the colonial system of the seventeenth century. Even more truly is it an essential contribution to our national history; for in early Virginia, devoted to the culture of a single commercial crop, and drifting into the employment of slave labor only, are to be found the germs of that institution which determined the political and commercial position of the South in the Union until overthrown by the civil war.

Lest this judgment be considered too high, it may be well to point out a few instances where the author's enthusiasm for his subject has carried him into excess of statement. The question of the trustworthiness of Captain John Smith may be regarded as an open one. He is one of the first, and,

indeed, most interesting writers on the condition of the early settlement; but it seems to us that Mr. Bruce accepts too implicitly the early chroniclers. Virginia, as described by them, is a very garden spot, with boundless agricultural possibilities. But these men were sent out by a company which was formed for profit, and it was their interest to paint as pleasing a picture as they knew how. Their letters and pamphlets are to be taken with allowance, and rather as "circulars of information for intending emigrants" than as scientific records of actual conditions. It is not till they mistake the caterpillar for the silkworm (i., 368) that Mr. Bruce offers a warning against the exaggeration of the early notions. Even after eighty years of planting, the settled parts of the colony "bore the aspect of a wilderness."

Another excess of Mr. Bruce is in the multitude of detail with which he surrounds each division of his subject. This is an amiable excess, and it may truly be said that the author is never overwhelmed by his facts to the obscuring of his narrative. The wide research and admirable combination of material prove what he can do; but the reader is at times repelled by a too minute regard for what is incidental to the subject. This has involved a danger of losing the sense of relative importance of matter. Individual instances are heaped up in the case of secondary as well as of primary topics. In this direction Mr. Bruce's labors have been so exhaustive as to leave little for those who may work over the same territory.

In the large number of topics covered by Mr. Bruce, two easily lead in interest, the culture of tobacco and the system of labor. Had the soil of Virginia, easily obtained by barter or force from the Indians, been as generally fertile as the early settlers represented it, and had the planters enjoyed favorable markets, we might have looked for a varied agriculture. Having satisfied their own immediate needs for food, they had few markets for grain, while it was soon found that in tobacco they had a staple export at once profitable and easily marketed. The Indian had cultivated the plant with success, and John Rolfe, who married Pocahontas, was the first colonist to attempt its growth. Within four years the plant had become one of the great crops of the colony, and in 1617 was cultivated even in the streets and market-place of Jamestown. It was soon the only crop, the measure of value and medium of exchange, an object of legislative solicitude, and a monopolizer of colonial effort. The "right" of planting was discussed. The number of stalks to the family, the distance between stalks and number of leaves to the stalk, the size of hogsheads, and the mode of inspecting the dried leaves, were some of the details regulated by law in an attempt to restrict the product and improve its quality. The culture influenced the taking up of the land whose fertility it exhausted, and sustained the entire social system of the settlements, together with their external relations.

This concentration of effort upon a single commodity led to important results. The planter, seeking his own gain, increased his production to such an extent that the marketable crop was generally in excess of what English consumption required, and he was obliged to look elsewhere for a sale of the excess. On the other hand, no effort of King or Parliament to create a market could keep pace with the increasing production. The importation into England of Spanish leaf, a better article than the Virginian, was restricted or pro-

hibited; the planting of tobacco in England was rigorously forbidden. Two policies, however, prevented an equilibrium in this trade. The King must have his customs, and to secure that the planter was enjoined from disposing of his tobacco in any market other than the English. The merchant marine must be encouraged, and for that the planter must ship in English vessels. It was, then, not to a free market that the Virginian brought his goods; he was not free to choose his market or his carrier, or to fix his price. That was all done for him by law and by custom, by tariff regulations, and by agents or factors acting at a distance and too irresponsible to feel the full sense of duty to their clients. Lastly, with his production regulated by colonial laws, his sales hampered by English policy, the planter could be made to suffer for his loyalty, as when he proclaimed the son of the beheaded Charles, and could be made to pay for the extravagances of the King or his representative in the colony, or for the profit of the merchant who held a lien on his future crops. All competition except among the planters themselves was destroyed.

Such a system was too oppressive, and led to evasion and smuggling, the natural protests against arbitrary laws so contrary to real interest. In 1663 the loss to the English customs on tobacco shipped to Holland was estimated to be ten thousand pounds sterling a year, and every enforcement of the customs and navigation laws brought a threat of ruin to the planter. The price of his product sank to less than a penny a pound, and Maryland competed on such terms as to place him at a disadvantage, rendering nugatory all efforts to restrict production. The prices fluctuated widely from year to year, and no forecast of market could be made. Beginning with 1680 a crisis was reached, and, in the general desperation, riots were fostered, resulting in the destruction of plants in the vain hope of affecting prices. Later the value of tobacco did increase, and the planter secured some advantage. Year after year passed with nothing to depend upon save this lottery of tobacco-culture. Throughout the century the authorities sought by rewards and threats to induce some diversity of crops, such as hemp, flax, the vine, or silk. Liberal bounties were offered and skilled workers specially imported to serve as pioneers and teachers. All was in vain. The planter preferred to live miserably by tobacco rather than in comfort by any other means, and was rich or poor according to the price of this staple. In its consequences there could be no better illustration of the evils of state interference with economic law than the attitude of Parliament, merchant, and planter towards the tobacco plant.

German Songs of To-day. Edited, with an introduction and literary notes, by Alexander Tille, Lecturer on the German Language and Literature in the University of Glasgow. Macmillan & Co. 1896.

It is the purpose of this volume, as stated in the preface, "to provide American students of German literature with a representative selection from the lyrics of the New Empire." In the rapid evolution of natural science and the interest in social problems, the editor recognizes the two mental factors which determine the character of modern German lyrics and distinguish them from the romantic poetry prior to 1870. It is, of course, absurd to maintain that any segment of the circle of human interests is insusceptible of poetic

treatment, for this proposition, as Pater has said, is "always liable to be discredited by the facts of artistic production." This volume, however, contains no "facts" tending to discredit such a proposition with regard to science and sociology. Indeed, it would seem that our so-called modern tendencies have been peculiarly unfortunate in the quality of their exponents, and it is the ungracious duty of responsible criticism to condemn the present collection of songs as depressing and unwholesome, in no true sense representative, and altogether repugnant to lovers of the high-minded muse whose function heretofore has been to elevate, to purify, and to delight.

Probably no collection of poems was ever brought together which did not, both by sins of omission and of commission, offend those most familiar with the field covered. This book will not prove an exception. Many a lyric gem and many an honored name will be missed. None of the poems is to be found here which have endeared the fine-grained and entirely modern poet Ferdinand von Saar to the hearts of his countrymen, nor is there any example of the strong and simple verse of Johanna Ambrosius, a modern among moderns, whose name is now known in every German home. On the other hand, there are poems here which, for various reasons, we think ought not to have been included. There are some strong poems, but they are painful; clever ones which are cold; pretty ones but feeble; and others, although of excellent workmanship, are most unpleasantly flavored. Some are not poems at all, but merely versified documents. What place, for instance, in a book of songs have the rhymed aphorisms of Nietzsche and his German editor, Fritz Koegel? Their presence is explained, but not excused, by the fact that Mr. Tille has charge of the English edition of Nietzsche's works.

In this circumstance we have the explanation, also, of the unrefreshing atmosphere which pervades most of the book. Under the pretentious heading "Modern Life," our attention is directed to drunkenness, disease, and death. The voice of the "under-paid and over-worked" is heard again, shriller and less touching, more sociological and less poetic, but as dreary and hopeless as when it sang the "Song of the Shirt." "Modern Love" is presented to us largely as an affair of the senses, and some even of the more delicate love lyrics seem to be accompanied by a significant wink. Otto Hartleben displays a marked distaste for men who never got drunk at midnight nor yielded to the solicitations of dark eyes. But we look in vain for some dim reflection of the playful grace of Goethe's "Morgenklagen" or Philine's song, which alone can rescue the frankly erotic lyric from repulsive mediocrity. The third rubric is "Modern Thought." Modern thought seems to consist for the most part of pessimistic sentiments of a strongly anti-Christian tendency. Indeed, the hatred which some of these young poets manifest towards God and the institutions founded in his name is extreme. Here, too, we miss the saving charm: there is none of that fierce indignation at God's injustice which leads to the defiant outbursts of Omar Khayyám their Promethean dignity. These are rather the utterances of young and unformed minds, boasting of their intellectual strength.

That this collection does represent certain phases of German life and thought during the last twenty-five years cannot be denied. These tendencies, however, do not characterize the period. They are aberrations, ending sometimes in imbecility, of which in our own day

examples are not lacking, or correcting themselves in the sobering process of the years. To select the poems of hot-headed youths and middle-aged gentlemen with diseased wits as representative, is to wrong literature much as some of our American cities wrong municipal government by electing incompetent and semi-criminal men to represent the body of just citizens. It is encouraging to hear from many lands the protest against an opinion which, by reason of insistent iteration, has been gaining ground, that our end of the century is distinguished from other times by its materialism, pessimism, and hot clamoring for "a freer life of love." These things are neither new nor specifically representative; degeneration is not endemic, and Germany still has poets who can give utterance to her nobler and truer aspirations.

Mr. Tille's introduction is ingenious and thoughtful, and he has made an honest effort to render justice to the uplifting tendencies in German thought. Accordingly the book contains some genuine poetry, but most of it was written by men of the last generation. Fontane's "Die Brück' am Tay" is a spirited poem which thrills with the terror of that great disaster, and haunts the imagination with its weird rush. Two, or three pretty love lyrics reveal the grace of a day which is not yet dead, and now and then is heard an earnest voice which speaks for decency and duty. But the sad feature of the volume is that its compiler seems to feel no repugnance for the age of which he presents a lyric portrait so unlovely, nor does he seem to be conscious that the life of the new Empire could have had any better exponents. One would think that a scholar who considers Arno Holz the greatest lyrical genius the Empire has yet produced, would have preferred to edit the poems of another time or people. Goethe, who judged his countrymen with sober objectivity, advised:

"Freunde, treibet nur alles mit Ernst und Liebe; die beiden
Stehen dem Deutschen so schön, den, ach! so vieles
entstellt."

It is the German in his disfigurement to whom Mr. Tille has introduced us.

Lectures on the Council of Trent, delivered at Oxford, 1892-'93, by James Anthony Froude. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

The fruits of Mr. Froude's Oxford professorship are now being given to the public. The present lectures, although the earliest of the three courses which he was allowed to complete, are the last to see the light. There are thirteen of them, twelve intended for the usual academic audience and the last for the general lecture-hearing public. In fact, this distinction might as well have passed without mention, for Mr. Froude's manner is never academic. Even more than in the case of the lectures on Erasmus, one is led to wonder just what serious students could do with these. Seven of the twelve lectures do not touch the Council at all, but are a review of the general conditions of Europe and of the course of events leading up to the eventual proclamation of the Council. It is in general reviews of this sort that Mr. Froude is always at his best. His strength is not in the careful weighing of historical evidence, nor in the detail of a continuous narrative, but rather in the skill with which he presents one side of a great question, and groups in this presentation all the aspects of a given time which favor his view. Any one familiar with

his method might almost have predicted just what he would say here. It is the well-known touch-and-go process, without reference to authority, without pretence of non-partisanship, but, after all, with great steadiness in the underlying purpose.

On the whole, one must admit that the point of view is in the main sound and clear. The estimate of the dangers to Europe from the overgrown Catholic system is at all events supported by so vast an array of facts that it no longer needs apology. One-sided this presentation doubtless is, but it is a side that has at least a right to be boldly and strongly stated. If there be something grotesque in the idea of Mr. Froude as a teacher of youth in historical method, it ought to be remembered that his academic honors were a matter of very late adoption, and that the standards of academic appointment (at the English universities) in the field of history have seldom been very exacting.

The most vivid impression one gets, from those lectures which treat of the Council itself is that of the deep-seated opposition between the strict curial party and the numerous interests of the Church as represented elsewhere. For instance, the ancient antagonism between the Curia and the episcopate—an opposition never to be overcome and never even dogmatically disposed of until the Vatican Council—is emphasized here at every point. Further, the national interest, especially as represented by Charles V., is given credit for all it deserves in its efforts, ineffectual though they were, to keep the curial party from its greatest extravagances. Charles is plainly the author's hero, and this not merely for the sake of the causes he is promoting, but for the qualities of the man himself. He is the one person in the great drama of the Council who seems to estimate justly the multitudinous forces of European politics and feeling. He, above all others, demands the Council, and he keeps his hand upon it, through his representatives, both at the Council itself and at the Curia. His failure to influence it was, perhaps, as much as anything else the cause of that break-down in his working powers which drove him from the stage just when a strong hand seemed most sorely needed.

The volume on the Council can hardly attain the popularity of that on Erasmus, since it lacks the element of unity, and does not make up for it by any amplitude of detail which might commend it to the student seeking information as to the tangled diplomacy of the late Reformation period.

Military Letters and Essays. By Capt. F. N. Maude, R. E.—*Cavalry Studies from Two Great Wars.* [International Military Series. Edited by Capt. A. L. Wagner, U. S. A.] Kansas City: Hudson-Kimberly Co. 8vo, pp. 303, 267.

CAPT. WAGNER is doing a service to military students in making use of his opportunities as instructor at the Leavenworth Infantry and Cavalry School of the Army to edit and republish papers on the art of war which have attracted serious attention in Europe and in this country. Of the two volumes named above, the first is a series of papers written by Capt. Maude, late of the Royal Engineers, for the benefit of officers of the Bengal service when he was on duty in India. As a whole, his papers were intended to be critiques upon the actual condition of the art of war in tactics and in weapons, with special inquiries whether the assumed lessons of the

Franco-German war are those which it in fact should teach, and whether the General Staff of Germany agree with the English authorities in respect to such teaching.

Captain Maude knows his own mind, and his handling of his topics is that of a man with strong mental grasp of his subject who has reached clear ideas about it, and is dead in earnest in warning his countrymen that they are running after theories which the best military brains of the Continent have repudiated. This is especially his contention as to the current notion in English military circles that the war of 1870 established the superior value of extended-order fighting (practically skirmishing) over that of the line in two ranks in which the line officers can retain personal control of movements by that direct command and discipline which is lost when the soldier is released from the duty of keeping his place and his gait. Our own civil war had shown the disadvantages of attack in deep and narrow columns, and the absolute necessity of a more extended formation; but it was a common criticism among our officers who saw the fighting in the Franco-German war that, in many instances, the advancing lines became practically disorganized and more nearly a mob than a military unit. They lost the mobility of a body by seeking too much the mobility of the individual. In short, they had carried our extended order to an absurd and self-destructive extreme. In the desire to avoid the heavy losses of a too compact formation under fire, they had sacrificed the ability to handle troops with that unity of will and of action which is the soul of military power.

Captain Maude shows by his own examination of the French and German manoeuvres, especially the latter, that the German staff had recognized the error, and is using a modified system of field tactics which keeps the advancing line much better in hand, and puts it nearly upon the system which our most intelligent officers had developed in 1864-5. He has illustrated his argument by widely varied studies, both of examples in the battles of 1870 and of recent field manoeuvres on a large scale. He gives most interesting notes, also, of his observation at these manoeuvres of the actual changes brought about by the use of smokeless powder. He finds that it does not, as was anticipated, conceal the combatants' positions, for the vivid flash of the artillery and of the musketry punctuates the setting of the lines more exactly, for an alert observer, than any smoke puff could do. No one pretending to keep abreast of progress in military studies can afford to neglect these essays. They are both able and bright, always *pat* upon the true point of discussion, and as stimulating when one differs from the author as when one agrees with him.

The second volume, the *Cavalry Studies*, is made up of three elaborate papers: The French Cavalry in 1870, by Lieutenant-Colonel (now General) Bonie of the French Dragoons, translated by Lieutenant C. F. Thompson of the Seventh Hussars; The German Cavalry at Vionville and Mars-la-Tour, by Major Kaehler of the German General Staff, translated by Lieutenant Reichmann of the Ninth Infantry, U. S. A.; and The Operations of the Cavalry in the Gettysburg Campaign, by Lieutenant-Colonel George B. Davis, U. S. A. The French and German papers are peculiarly valuable because they deal with the same war and with the same engagements, so as to give vivid pictures from the opposed points of view, but with, in the main, concurring criticism upon the unreadiness and the antiquated methods of

the Second Empire. Colonel Davis's paper is a republication of his excellent essay to show, in connection with the others, how far our own cavalry had learned from experience, by 1863, the lessons the French studied bitterly seven years afterward.

We wish that Capt. Wagner had had enough faith in the success which his enterprise richly deserves to give the volumes more complete and attractive form from the standpoint of book-making. To issue such books without an index is a sin against the class of readers who will gain most profit from them, and who will long for an easy mode of reference to each criticism and to each fact, each incident of each field, and each organization and officer whose movements and whose conduct point the argument. Then some maps for the first volume are a necessity. The four in the second are admirable, and if a similar number of good ones had been inserted in the first, its value would have been multiplied. If only a single good topographical map of the vicinity of Aldershot had been given to illustrate Capt. Maude's excellent description of the sham battle of the English troops there, it would have been a boon to the reader and made the reading much more profitable. We would fain believe it would have made the publication more profitable also.

Russian Politics. By Herbert M. Thompson, M.A. Henry Holt & Co.

MR. THOMPSON is a member of the English Society of Friends of Russian Freedom, of which there is a branch in this country, and of which he furnishes the circular and an appeal in an appendix. To those who are acquainted with the views, objects, and methods of this society, this suggestion sufficiently indicates the tone of the book—in a measure. We say "in a measure," because, on the whole, the author is inclined to stop short of offensively partisan denunciations. Nevertheless, had he exercised a little more reserve in that particular, had he not seized upon opportunities for strong expression on matters where much more information is needed than is at the command of a foreigner who has neither visited nor studied Russia, his book would have been much stronger and more valuable. We assume, from the internal evidence, that he has not been in Russia, and that his information has been obtained exclusively from the books which he quotes and from one of the Russian exiles now established in England. It would have been more fair to give the other side a hearing in court before passing a final, condemnatory verdict, or to have refrained from comment altogether, and rested the case on the evidence quoted. One point must be mentioned, to the author's honor: he gives the source of his information in every case, and the hints thus afforded to the reader who desires to study any special phase of the question in greater detail are very useful. The volume is, in fact, a compilation, and one of the best compilations which we have seen for a long time. There is nothing abrupt or scrappy about it. Its five maps, which show the ethnographical distribution of the population, the natural agricultural zones, the Jewish pale of settlement, the genealogy of the imperial family, Russia before the time of Peter the Great, and the final partition of Poland, are of great value and interest to any one who studies Russian topics.

But Mr. Thompson makes mistakes which are incompatible with a profound knowledge of Russian history and with personal knowledge of the country. On p. 20, for example,

he says: "The middle of the thirteenth century saw their [the Tatar] invading hosts devastating with fire and sword as far north as Novgorod." The Tatars never got to "Lord Novgorod the Great," and that haughty republic remained unconquered until the time of Ivan the Terrible, when that Tsar humiliated it, three centuries after the date here mentioned. On p. 38 we read: "The building of the Kremlin at Moscow was begun under Ivan III. The Kremlin takes the place, in the chief Russian cities, that the Acropolis did in those of ancient Greece; but as Russia is a flat land, the Kremlin could not be stationed, as the Acropolis used to be, crowning a hill and overlooking the city." Russia is, on the whole, a flat country; but Moscow is built on a series of undulating hills, of which the one crowned by the Kremlin, as it overlooks the city, is the highest. The Kremlin of Nizhni-Novgorod, also, is on a hill. It would be well, in a second edition, to correct such errors as Stephen Navorski, for Yavorski; General Orenteln, for Drenteln; Biren and the Duke of Courland, for Biren, Duke of Courland; Schlusseburg, for Schlus-selburg—errors which have, probably, their origin in the American version, as well as *The Christs, for the Christ's*. The description of the Russian church as "that woodenly formal pietism," and so forth, is neither true nor kind; and the reader's mind involuntarily reverts to the law which prevents the accession to the throne of England of a Roman Catholic when he meets this sentence: "According to a barbarous custom which still obtains, a princess marrying the heir to the Russian throne undergoes 'conversion' to the Greek communion, and is very often rechristened by another name." Such a remark, on the part of an Englishman, is decidedly indiscreet—it lays him open to retort, and it contains an untruth: no one who belongs to a Christian church and has received baptism therein is ever "re-christened" on entering the Russian Church, though the future Empresses do receive names which their subjects can master, after saints whose festivals can be celebrated, for the enjoyment and repose of the people. The author makes one good point, in his discussion of the peasant. He says: "The average consumption of alcohol in Russia is less per head than in western European countries, which seems to dispose of the idea that the Russian peasant spends his substance in riotous living, and ruins himself by excessive drinking."

The authorities which our author quotes are of very varied quality, and from each he draws what he requires to enforce his argument—and, generally, only that. Such a book must, of necessity, present a one-sided view of matters; but its interest is undeniable. One wonders whether an Englishman or an American would relish or respect a book on his own country made up on the same principle, and whether the printing and reading world would not breathe a sigh of relief if only those people who really know Russia were permitted to write and dogmatize about it, or compile tomes from other tomes about it!

Southern Quakers and Slavery: A Study in Institutional History. By Stephen B. Weeks, Ph.D. [Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science.] Baltimore. 1896.

THE title of Dr. Weeks's book has the merit of understatement. He has really prepared, with great industry, a summary account of Quaker settlements at the South, their rise and de-

cline, in connection with their relations to slavery and a consequent migration to the Northwest. It is only on p. 198 that the title recurs, as the heading of the ninth chapter. The proverbial dryness of Quaker annals has been felt and expressed by this investigator, but he has contrived to make his narrative anything but dull, and the work as a whole, with its map, is a valuable contribution to our religious and political history. That the Southern Quakers, as soon as they had completely divorced themselves from slaveholding (which was not till after the Revolution), were in a delicate position may be inferred. They threw their weight in favor of modifying the statutes directed against emancipation, and evaded them in a manner by assigning their own freedmen to a committee which held them till it could transport them to the North. In a society, however, whose normal condition was one of war between the dominant and the subject race, the Quakers, as men of peace, had no proper place. If they remained, they had to contrive a *modus vivendi* with the institution which they detested (pp. 242, 297), and whose growing power, both State and national, forbade them to expect any enlargement of their own denomination by accessions from the North. "There was found to be but one effective protest against the system—migration." Their material inducement to remain after the country north of the Ohio was fairly thrown open to settlement was much diminished, and in the end a great movement from the seaboard to that fertile region took place in the wake of the freedmen already dispatched thither. Dr. Weeks traces these shiftings with certainty and particularity. What follows belongs to the history of the "Underground Railway," for in Indiana and Ohio the newcomers were at liberty to speed the fugitive on his way to Canada, and this liberty they used while braving the terrors of the constitutional power which was on the side of the oppressor. In Georgia and South Carolina the Quaker societies have quite gone out of sight; in Virginia they reckon but a few hundreds; in North Carolina they still count for something, though this State was foremost in the migration.

"The largest and most progressive meetings found in North Carolina to-day are not among the representatives of the native stock, but among those who came in from the North during the eighteenth century. . . . Most of these new settlers were from Pennsylvania, but some had delayed a few years in Maryland; some were from New Jersey, and some from Nantucket. . . . [Their] motive was distinctly economic. Their movement is parallel to that of the Scotch-Irish" (pp. 95, 96).

Among these, from Pennsylvania, was the family from which sprang Samuel M. Janney, the historian, most prolific of Southern Quaker writers; from Nantucket, the stock of Levi Coffin, whose active aid to fugitives after he removed to Cincinnati is related in his Reminiscences; from New Jersey, the kinsmen of Benjamin Lundy. The manumission societies formed in North Carolina from 1816 to 1835 were supported though not controlled by Quakers. Some of those in North Carolina were organized by Charles Osborn, others (as also in Virginia) by Lundy. Osborn was a native of North Carolina, who removed near the end of the last century to Tennessee, where he began his anti-slavery labors. These, though not to be despised, do not entitle him to Dr. Weeks's excessive praise as "one of the greatest of the anti-slavery agitators." His main service was in paving the way, by his *Philanthropist*, for Lundy, upon whose appearance Osborn fades into the background. Nor was the latter "the

first man in America to proclaim the doctrine of immediate and unconditional emancipation." That high honor belongs to the Rev. George Bourne, and he an Englishman.

Dr. Weeks would probably have dwelt more upon Lundy's labors had our Jerseyman been a Southern Quaker. It would have been interesting to note, in connection with the certificates (in 1802) from South River, Va., to "Concord Monthly Meeting, Northwest Territory [Ohio]," that it was precisely to this meeting that Benjamin Lundy was dismissed in 1809 from Hardwick and Mendham Meeting, N. J., instead of to Westland, Pennsylvania, as first contemplated; Westland being a stopping-place for the Ohio migration. Dr. Weeks enables us to perceive that Lundy's new associations were with Friends fresh from the pit of slavery, and hence calculated to arouse his interest in the subject and to ground him in his abhorrence of the system. We may also remark that Thomas Lundy removed in 1796 from Ringwood Monthly Meeting, N. J., to Westfield, N. C. Dr. Weeks records migrations from this monthly meeting to Ohio, though no Lundy is among them; but the name occurs on the list from Mount Pleasant.

Theoretical Chemistry. By Walter Nernst, Ph.D. Translated by Charles Skeele Palmer, Ph.D. Macmillan. Pp. xxvi+697.

KNOWLEDGE of the general laws and conditions of chemical change has made enormous advances, the last few years, through the systematic study of the interrelation of physical and chemical phenomena; and Physical Chemistry, practically a new branch of science, is the result. Hence the "Theoretical Chemistry" of to-day is a very different thing from that of only ten years ago. Not only are its bounds much extended, but the point of view is largely new, and one from which a more comprehensive survey and wider generalizations are possible.

Dr. Nernst's work, in the original, met with a most hearty reception in Germany and among those who keep in touch with German science, to whom the author's reputation as a brilliant worker in his chosen field was well known. It gives a clear and critical account of the achievements and principles of physical chemistry. Without aiming at such a complete record of data as is given in Ostwald's 'Lehrbuch,' Dr. Nernst has endeavored to present a thorough description of those results which possess the most general significance or give promise of attaining it, and of those hypotheses which have thus far proved of value. Hence a great mass of material which now has only historical interest is omitted. The Rule of Avogadro, "which seems to be an almost inexhaustible 'horn of plenty' for the molecular theory," and the Doctrine of Energy, are fittingly emphasized as the most important foundations in the theoretical discussion of chemical phenomena.

The subject is divided into four "books," whose titles will indicate in a rough way the scope of theoretical chemistry at the present day. Book I. is on "The Universal Properties of Matter," and has chapters on the gaseous, the liquid, the solid states of aggregation, the physical mixture, and dilute solutions; Book II., on "Atom and Molecule," deals with the theories of atomic and molecular constitution of matter, the determination of molecular weights, the constitution and structure of the molecule, dissociation of gases, electrolytic dissociation, etc.; Book III., on "The Transformation of Matter," includes chemical statics and

kinetics; and Book IV., on "The Transformations of Energy," discusses thermo-, electro-, and photo-chemistry. The work is an exceedingly successful presentation of a difficult subject, and is characterized by thorough mastery and marked independence of treatment. It is full of suggestiveness and stimulus to the student of chemistry.

On account of its sterling value we were prepared to welcome a translation which should render it accessible to English-speaking chemists whose German is weak or wanting; but we must confess to a feeling of great disappointment when we opened the volume before us. It is a pity that the translation should not have fallen to a more competent hand. The translator's knowledge of the two languages involved in the transaction unfortunately appears hardly adequate to the task he set himself. In a treatise dealing with such abstruse subjects, and one not merely to be read but studied, clearness and accuracy of statement are of the first importance. While the German of Dr. Nernst offers little ground for criticism in these respects, Dr. Palmer's translation is faulty to a degree which makes the book hard reading and tries the patience of the student to the limit. In his preface the translator says: "Regarding the translation, I have been guided solely by the aim to combine fidelity to the original with clearness in good English." "Fidelity to the original," according to Dr. Palmer's method, consists in painstaking, literal rendering of the German, sentence by sentence, phrase by phrase; a method which, as every student of German knows, cannot result in "good" and idiomatic English. We note also that he intimates some uncertainty of his qualifications as a translator in adding: "I am very largely indebted to the assistance of . . . in the attempt to make the sound German speak good English. The translation is submitted to the [hoffentlich] kindly criticism of both colleagues and students."

No criticism is really kindly which fails to point out defects. And it is in no unkindly spirit that we call attention to the shortcomings of this translation, but in the discharge of the simple duty which the reviewer owes to the public. The melancholy truth of the strictures which have been made on this translation is abundantly demonstrated by the following examples:

"If one can diminish at pleasure the adaptable volume of a definite amount of a simple gas, by increasing the external pressure, the pressure, exerted by the gas on the surrounding walls, grows continually with the diminution of volume; if one works at a temperature sufficiently reduced, there suddenly comes a point at which, by diminishing the volume, the pressure experiences no increase, but remains constant." (Page 47.)

"The question whether a well-defined chemical substance represents an element or a compound of several different elements, and in the latter case to what extent each element is contained in unit weight of the substance, this is a problem of a purely experimental nature," etc. (Page 151.)

"The fact that the molecule consists of one atom, in the case of only a few elements, where the atomic and molecular weights are identical with each other, such not being the case for all the elements, this occasions only passing doubts," etc. (Page 153.)

"Suppose that we believe, not only as has been emphasized in accordance with experience thus far, that the mutual saturation capacity is almost unlimited; but also, inasmuch as all ponderable matter attracts other matter mutually, without regard to its properties, so let us regard every two lines of force, called valences (from different atoms), under suitable circumstances, as showing only mutual action, irrespective of whichever atoms they radiate

from; then it is very probable that the intensity of this action from its nature," etc. (Page 241.)

These specimens, taken almost at random, show in what measure Dr. Palmer has succeeded in his attempt "to make the sound German speak good English." They are almost worthy of a place beside the illustrations of "School English" which have recently been offered to the readers of the *Nation*.

Dr. Nernst's meaning can undoubtedly be extracted from such passages as the above by a devoted student; in other instances, however, the reader is misled by greater and more subtle obscurity, or actual mistranslation. For example: "For supposing that . . . some genius had gained an insight into the kinetic gas theory, a little before the gas laws themselves were discovered (*vor ihrer Entdeckung wenigstens zum Theil vorausgesehen hätte*); even then, as a matter of fact, the way . . . had to be levelled down by much painstaking endeavor (*in Wirklichkeit aber haben viele mühevollen Forschungen den Weg ebnen müssen*)." (Page 355.) "This ratio of the relative quantities will remain constant, even if one should wait seventeen (!) years (*dieses Mengenverhältniss blieb constant, auch als man 17 Jahre wartete*)." (Page 376.) The translator's exclamation-point is pertinent.

We add a few further illustrations of the infelicitous expressions and renderings with which the book abounds. On page 238 we are told, in regard to certain changes of affinity, that "we usually are entirely ignorant as to the whereabouts of the cause." On page 267, "This [support] sits on a heavy tripod base." On page 457 is "a pendulum which is well muffled." On page 237 "we go into a region . . . which can only be reached by a leap of a bold phantasy." *Beliebig* is sometimes "casual," sometimes "arbitrary," and again "selected." *Auftrieb* becomes "resistance"; *passiren* (traverse) is "pass by"; *mattgeschliffen* is "smoothly ground"; *zu Stande kommen*, "come to a pause"; *Sperrflüssigkeit*, "packing liquid"; *wird aber wohl nirgends leichter gemacht*, "can be easily made now or never." We find also, "nature laws," "knife-pointfuls," "mass-points," "play-space" (of the molecules), and "heat-toning" (*Wärmetönung*) for thermal value.

With the publisher rests the real responsibility for the appearance of so unsatisfactory a translation. It cannot be too often repeated that, for the sake of his reputation, and for the protection of the public on whom that reputation depends, a publisher should exercise at least as much caution in the acceptance of a translation as of an original work. The translation of such a treatise as this of Nernst's must of course be the work of one who possesses a thorough mastery of the subject; but the expert should also be known to have the ability to reproduce the matter of the original in clear and idiomatic English. This is obvious enough, but in the present instance it has been strangely neglected.

The Journal of Captain William Pote, Jr., during his Captivity in the French and Indian War, from May, 1745, to August, 1747. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. xxxvii, 223. Portraits and maps.

A CONTRIBUTION of some importance has been made to the original sources of our colonial history through the publication of this journal, found in manuscript by Mr. J. F. Hurst in a book store in Geneva, Switzerland. The author, Capt. Wm. Pote, jr., of Falmouth, Maine,

was taken prisoner near Annapolis Royal in Nova Scotia, which was then beleaguered by a large force of French and Indians, and was carried to Quebec, where he remained for two years in close confinement. Considering the circumstances under which the first and most interesting half—giving a description of the incidents of the march through the Maine wilderness—was written, it is a remarkable production, showing considerable literary power as well as quaint humor. The most important passage for historical purposes is the detailed account of the fight in Tatmagouche Bay, by which Capt. David Donahew turned back a force of several hundred French and Indians who were on their way to relieve Louisbourg. This exploit, of which little notice has been taken by the historians, certainly hastened the fall of that place, if it was not the occasion of it. Mr. Parkman refers to the dismay of the governor and garrison at the non-arrival of M. Marin's troops, but does not mention the cause of his failure. An account of the fight, however, is given in the official report of the governor, printed in the appendix to 'A Half-Century of Conflict.'

The latter half of the journal, narrating the incidents of the writer's prison life, is largely taken up with the names of the new prisoners brought in and of those who died. The largest number confined at one time was 296, and the deaths were 77. There were also marriages and births among the captives, and occasionally the monotony of their prison-life was broken by some notable incident, as the following entry shows:

"12th this Day as we was at dinner Came Into our Room J^{no} Simson a man y^t have been In this place about 2 Years and one Susanah Boillison y^t was taken with Cap^t Salter, these 2 have desired m^r Norton to marrey them Several times, But having no permission from y^e General, he always Refused y^m therefore they came and Stood in y^e middle of y^e Room hand in hand before y^e minister as he Sat at dinner and Declar^d they took Each other as man and wife In y^e Presence of God and us witnesses after which they had a Certificate drawn and we all Sign^d it Viz 12 y^e minister on y^e top and all y^e Rest of us under him, this was y^e first time I Ever Saw y^e like Encouragement and permission Given, for whereing."

There are numerous notes, explanatory of names of persons and places, as well as an historical introduction by Mr. V. H. Paltsits. We have detected a slight error in his account of Gov. Mascarene. The commander of his regiment, raised not "for service in the West Indies," but for the expedition against Port Royal, was not Col. Wanton, but Col. Shadrach Walton of New Hampshire. Accompanying the volume is an admirable reproduction of the manuscript map in the Lenox Library, made in 1749 at Gov. Shirley's request, by the surveyor Charles Morris, "of the northern English Colonies, together with the French neighboring Settlements." There are also a route-map, plans, facsimiles and portraits, and an excellent index. Of the beauty of the mechanical execution of this product of the De Vinne Press it is hard to speak in too high praise.

Pierres Gravées des Collections Marlborough et d'Orléans, etc., réunies et rééditées avec un texte nouveau par Salomon Reinach. Paris: Firmin-Didot et Cie. 1895.

THIS is the fourth volume of the now famous "Bibliothèque des Monuments Figurés Grecs et Romains." The archæological world is deeply indebted to M. Reinach for his careful republication and reëditing of all the volumes

in this series, and the latest especially will be a boon to a rapidly increasing audience. It surprises us to find that M. Reinach has been able to cram so much into so small a space, and to fix a price that puts the volume within the reach of most students who are interested in the subject. The old folio volumes were out of print, and were for the most part inaccessible to students in America. Besides that, the accompanying texts were mostly unscientific and antiquated, and could be used with safety only by those who knew well the ground they were treading. All this has been materially changed, thanks to the tireless work of M. Reinach, who has compressed the thirteen volumes (mostly folio) into the compass of one large octavo volume consisting of xv and 195 pages and 137 plates, while the cost is only thirty francs.

The reduction in the size of the old plates has not impaired the value of the original engravings for purposes of study and comparison. M. Reinach has really written a new text to these old plates; he has eliminated the stuff and padding (or, in other words, the greater part) of the original texts, and has cited the literature relating to individual gems. Indeed, the 195 pages of this volume are of far more value than the entire texts of the original thirteen volumes. We can go even farther and assert that the original volumes are now relegated to oblivion, because completely superseded by this modest publication.

And yet, in spite of all that can be said, we must warn the student that it is not safe to make unquestioning use of these plates, in which a strong element of caricature, untrustworthiness, and misrepresentation is always present. Methods of study and teaching have changed since the olden days of unquestioning faith when these plates were regarded as real boons. Nowadays true archaeological research must needs be done in the presence of the originals or of casts from the originals; lacking which, photographs from the casts of gems give us the only other safe means of studying art. All engravings and mere outlines involve error and misrepresentation, involve a loss of details, of type, and an obscuring of the motive subject.

The plates of this volume need further sifting and elimination, and, in spite of the debt we owe to M. Reinach, we see clearly that the definitive publication of antique gems has not yet been made. It is a fascinating subject that calls aloud for a devoted worker.

The Number Concept; Its Origin and Development. By Levi Leonard Conant. Macmillan. 1896.

THIS volume is made up of tables of the numerals of a great many (perhaps 500) different languages, with a slight connective commentary, drawing attention to the signification and composition of the words. The shortcomings of the work are numerous and regrettable, though by no means fatal; its merits are few and simple, but considerable.

The title is a misnomer, and the author shows that his own number-concept is in a low stage of development. Numerals are not themselves concepts at all, nor do they signify concepts. They are simply a scale of vocables, which we use very much as we use a foot-rule. We apply them to a multitude, and mark how far on the scale that multitude will go. In explaining this, we explain what the number-concept really is: it is the intelligent conception of the purpose and method of the system of numerals. It is entirely unnecessary that this should, in the form of a concept, or intellectual product,

be in the minds of those who use numerals. It is sufficient that they should know by experience that counting is somehow useful, that it aids bargaining, etc., and that they should be habituated to the use of a series of words in counting. The continual use of the word "concept," instead of speaking of "words" or "terms" and their "significations," is a German way of speaking, very inferior, both in logical accuracy and in perspicuity, to our English idiom. At any rate, the real subject of this book is numerals and their modes of formation.

Very little is said of the number-concept (which is really of very late development), nor of the idea which the tribes mentioned may entertain in regard to number in general; and what little is said is not worthy of criticism. Not only does the author fail to discriminate the number-concept from the use of numerals, but he also falls into a confusion of thought which must greatly embarrass his mathematical pedagogy, namely, a confusion between *number*, in the sense of the result of counting, and *multitude*. He tells us that all tribes "show some familiarity with the number-concept." Yet he mentions Bolivian tribes which are said to have no numerals whatever. Still, he says they show "a conception" of the difference between *one* and *many*. In another place, he says that the "number-concept" of ordinary people is imperfect, in that they have little sense of the different degrees of multitudinousness of high numbers. On the contrary, this has nothing to do with the accuracy of their "number-concept," or of their power of applying numerals to the purpose for which they were invented. It is true that to the mind trained in certain branches of applied mathematics the word "trillion" carries associations of rigid statistical uniformity which the word "million" lacks. Such a mind may be said to attach different conceptions to the two words; and the distinction is useful to such a mind. But this has nothing to do with the use of numbers as numbers. The person considered will put all that out of his mind when he has any definite numbers to deal with, and will perform his arithmetical calculations just like anybody else. A system of numerals is an apparatus for counting. Those numerous tribes which have names only for *one*, *two*, and *three*, which express four by *two twos*, five by *two and three*, etc., evidently did not count at the time their language was formed, and probably do not count now. They, like all men, recognize pairs and triplets by their configurations, fours as pairs of pairs, etc. The so-called numerals of such tribes are, properly speaking, not numerals at all. When a tribe has a numeral system based upon *five*, *ten*, or *twenty*, the evidence is that they possess the art of counting! They are quite prepared to count indefinitely as soon as they can count at all, provided they have the power, possessed by most savages, of unconsciously coining a name as soon as they need it. The limits of their numeral words mark the limits of their need of such words.

From a philological point of view, the execution of the book is slovenly. The author copies the various transcriptions of the writings from which he has compiled the lists, without explanation, and omitting all diacritical marks. We do not know whether *c* is to be pronounced *k* or *sh* or *tsh* or *th* or *dh*, whether *g* represents the German guttural *ch* or the velar *k*, whether *x* stands for *ks*, for *h*, or for the Arabic *ghain*, whether *j* has the English, French, German or Spanish sound, etc. When we remember that the English word

fox, pronounced by a Cherokee, and transliterated according to a recognized system, but with the diacritical marks removed, appears as *kwagisi*, we see that, for the purposes of comparison of languages, this book presents nothing but an imperfect list of references. There is little notice of Semitic numerals, none of the Egyptian, and scarcely any of the Babylonian. There is no mention of the so-called Chaldean names for the Arabic figures found in Latin twelfth-century works. There is no classification by races; but North American and African languages, the furthest remote from one another in their spirit of any of the tongues of men, are shovelled in together. Of many minor faults we take no notice.

The merits of the work are that it exhibits all the modes of formation of numerals, that it shows the universality of the bases 5, 10, 20, and the non-existence of any true binary scale or any use of 6 or 11 as a base, that it affords evidence that many tribes do not count, and consequently have no proper numerical system, and that there are the greatest differences in the arithmetical capacity of races equally barbarous.

Hunting and Fishing in Florida, including a Key to the Water Birds, etc. By Charles B. Cory. Boston: Published by the Author. 1896. Sm. 4to, pp. 302.

FLORIDA is so peculiar in its geographical position and climatic conditions that it may be said to have a fauna and flora of its own. Naturalists have only gradually waked up to this fact, with the result that during the past twenty-five years almost every writer of any scientific pretensions who has studied the subject has had to describe some new species or subspecies. A formal systematic treatise on the land vertebrates, for example, would reflect an extraordinary assemblage of nearctic and neotropical characteristics, with a facies on the whole different from either. Florida, in fine, is almost as much Antillean as North American. Mr. Cory in this work first formally distinguishes the peninsular cougar, rehabilitates Rafinesque's wildcat, and adopts the particular subspecies of various recent specialists among the rodents and insectivores. The general trend of variation among both birds and mammals is toward darker coloration and smaller size, though in the latter respect peripheral parts, such as the beaks and feet of birds, may not be proportionately reduced, but rather the reverse. The Florida red bat, for example, may be distinguished as *Atalapha borealis peninsularis*, and we doubt not that the small deer of the peninsula is equally entitled to recognition as *Cariacus* (or *Damelaphus*) *fraterculus*.

The birds have been subjected to such searching scrutiny of late years that perhaps no new forms remain to be discovered, excepting estrays from the insular offspring. The latter half of the present work is devoted to a systematic treatise upon the waders and swimmers. Mr. Cory is nothing if not orthodox in nomenclature; he lays firm hold of the horns of the A. O. U. altar, observes the code punctiliously, and would as soon be out of the world as out of the fashion of a "Key" to the species he describes. The birds are also very fully illustrated by means of process plates. These portraits are as a rule elegant and effective; but they vary in these respects according to the better or worse taxidermy of the particular specimens which were shot with the camera. The text in each case is a formal diagnosis,

which emphasizes differential characters in thick type, with brief notes on habitats, habits, and the like.

Aside from this, and from the mammalian chapter, as well as from a similar one on the snakes of Florida, the other half of the book is of the outing class, in the nature of personal narrative of hunting and fishing; but it also includes a considerable account of the Seminole Indians. The author is a keen sportsman as well as a good naturalist, and some of these sketches, such as that on tarpon-fishing, make very attractive reading. One good point is scored in discriminating clearly between the crocodile and alligator; and in this respect we may recall the fact that it is not many years since it was declared that there were no crocodiles in Florida, because there could not be any—the *Alligatoridae* being an American, and the *Crocodylidae* an old-world, type of emydosaurs. This part of the work is as fully illustrated as the ornithological portion, chiefly with hunting scenes, pictures of large game killed, and portraits of Indians. The

book is a handsome one in all its appointments, and will fully sustain the author's reputation for readability, reliability, and good sense. At least one of his previous works is not less magnificent than the great Audubon folios themselves; and Mr. Cory is one of the singularly fortunate naturalists whose private means are adequate to any desired gratification of luxurious tastes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Orations: Studies in American Political History. Putnam's. \$1.25.
Arnold, Matthew. Essays in Criticism. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 20c.
Aucassin and Nicolette. Boston: Copeland & Day. 75c.
Bailey, Alice W. Mark Heffron. Harpers. \$1.25.
Barrère, Albert. A Dictionary of French and English Military Terms. Second Part. French-English. London: Hachette; Boston: T. H. Castor & Co.
Blodgett, Mrs. Mabel F. Fairy Tales. Boston: Lamson, Wolfe & Co.
Book Sales of 1895. London: P. Cockram.
Brewster, W. T. Studies in Structure and Style. Macmillan. \$1.10.
Byers, W. V. The Glory of the Garden, and Other Odes, Sonnets, and Ballads. Second Series. The Author.
Clinton, H. L. Extraordinary Cases. Harpers. \$2.50.
Cody, Sherwin. In the Heart of the Hills. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. \$1.25.
Conant, C. A. A History of Modern Banks of Issue. Putnam's. \$3.

Cotes, Mrs. Everard. His Honor, and a Lady. Appletons. \$1.50.
Dickens, Charles. Reprinted Pieces, and The Lazy Tour of Two Idle Apprentices. Macmillan. \$1.
Duer, Caroline, and Alice. Poems. G. H. Richmond & Co. \$1.25.
Egan, M. F. Jack Chumleigh; or, Friends and Foes. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. \$1.
Elliot, George. Silas Marner. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 36c.
Eucharistic Conferences. New York: Catholic Book Exchange. 50c.
Fisher, S. G. The Making of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.50.
Hutchinson, W. H. Charles Gounod: Autobiographical Reminiscences, etc. London: Heinemann; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$3.
Irving, W. Tales of a Traveller. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 24c.
Keightley, S. R. The Cavaliers. Harpers. \$1.50.
Montrésor, F. F. Worth White. Edward Arnold. 75c.
Norris, Prof. Mary H. Longfellow's Evangeline. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Paine, Thomas. The Age of Reason. Putnam's. \$1.25.
Peattie, Ella W. A Mountain Woman. Chicago: Way & Williams. \$1.25.
Pratt, Anna M. Little Rhymes for Little People. New York: Lempereur, Hilliard & Hopkins.
Rennett, Prof. H. A. Sanchez's La Isla Bárbara and La Guardia Ciudadosa. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$2.
Schechter, S. Studies in Judaism. Macmillan. \$1.75.
Sedgwick, Jane M. Songs from the Greek. G. H. Richmond & Co. \$1.25.
Society of Mayflower Descendants. First Year-Book. New York: J. B. Backus.
Sumichrast, Prof. F. C. de. Coppée's Le Pater. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Tooker, W. W. Cockenoe de Long Island: John Elliot's First Indian Interpreter. Francis P. Harper. \$2.
Wheelwright, J. T. A Bad Penny. Boston: Lamson, Wolfe & Co.

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